

AD-A143 247

A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY INTO THE SUCCESSFUL AND
UNSUCCESSFUL LISTENING STRA. (U) AIR FORCE INST OF TECH
WRIGHT-PATTERSON AFB OH J N FUJITA 1984

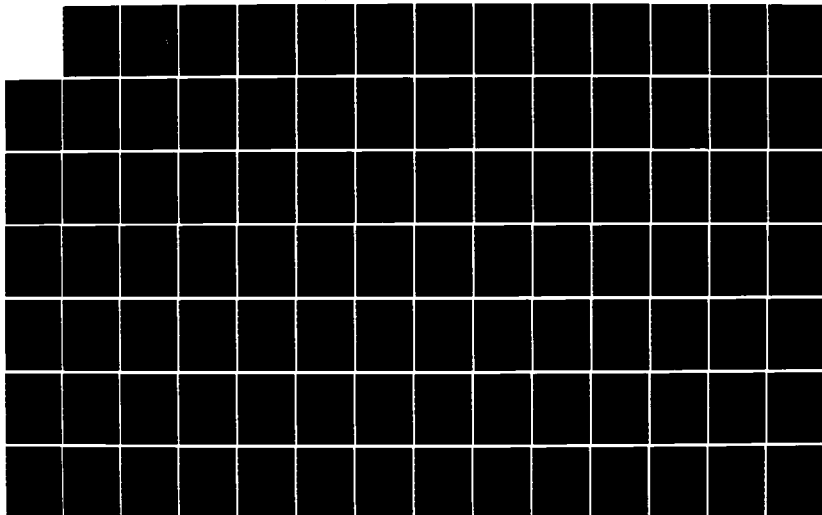
1/4

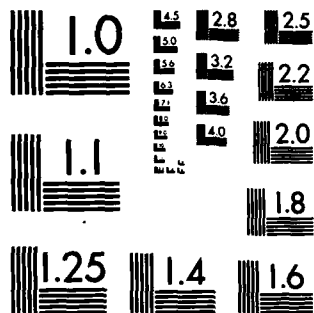
UNCLASSIFIED

AFIT/CI/NR-84-21D

F/G 5/10

NL





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

UNCLASS

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER AFIT/CI/NR 84-21D [✓]	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) A Preliminary Inquiry Into The Successful And Unsuccessful Listening Strategies of Beginning College Japanese Students		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED THESIS/DISSERTATION
		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER
7. AUTHOR(s) James Nobuyuki Fujita		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS AFIT STUDENT AT: The Ohio State University		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS AFIT/NR WPAFB OH 45433		12. REPORT DATE 349
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES 1984
ING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) UNCLASS
TION STATEMENT (of this Report) FOR PUBLIC RELEASE; DISTRIBUTION UNLIMITED		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE
TION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
<p>AD-A143 247</p> <p>OTIC SELECTED JUL 23 1984 A</p>		
<p>ADDITIONAL NOTES</p> <p>APPROVED FOR PUBLIC RELEASE: IAW AFR 190-1[✓]</p> <p>LYNN E. WOLAVER Dean for Research and Professional Development AFIT, Wright-Patterson AFB OH</p>		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
<p>ATTACHED</p> <p>OTIC FILE COPY</p> <p>84 07 10 098</p>		

DD FORM 1473

1 JAN 73

EDITION OF 1 NOV 65 IS OBSOLETE

UNCLASS

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

21

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Language teachers have continually searched for more effective methods to teach foreign languages. In the past half century, for example, the members of the language-teaching profession have at one time or another espoused various methods and approaches such as the direct method, the grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method, the cognitive-code approach, and perhaps what some people might even call an eclectic approach to the teaching of foreign languages. The main concern of teachers for many years has been the teaching process. More specifically, the teaching process was seen largely from a view of what teachers did to and for their students. The student's learning process has been largely ignored. Along with this unending search for the best method to teach foreign languages appeared a concern for scientific studies to validate the best instructional method.

Broad methodological studies were thus undertaken in the early 1960s. For example, in a study comparing the audiolingual method and the traditional method, Agard and

AFIT RESEARCH ASSESSMENT

The purpose of this questionnaire is to ascertain the value and/or contribution of research accomplished by students or faculty of the Air Force Institute of Technology (ATC). It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete the following questionnaire and return it to:

AFIT/NR
Wright-Patterson AFB OH 45433

RESEARCH TITLE: A Preliminary Inquiry Into The Successful And Unsuccessful Listening Strategies of Beginning College Japanese Students

AUTHOR: James Nobuyuki Fujita

RESEARCH ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Did this research contribute to a current Air Force project?

☐ a. YES

☐ b. NO

2. Do you believe this research topic is significant enough that it would have been researched (or contracted) by your organization or another agency if AFIT had not?

☐ a. YES

☐ b. NO

3. The benefits of AFIT research can often be expressed by the equivalent value that your agency achieved/received by virtue of AFIT performing the research. Can you estimate what this research would have cost if it had been accomplished under contract or if it had been done in-house in terms of manpower and/or dollars?

☐ a. MAN-YEARS _____

☐ b. \$ _____

4. Often it is not possible to attach equivalent dollar values to research, although the results of the research may, in fact, be important. Whether or not you were able to establish an equivalent value for this research (3. above), what is your estimate of its significance?

☐ a. HIGHLY
SIGNIFICANT

☐ b. SIGNIFICANT

☐ c. SLIGHTLY
SIGNIFICANT

☐ d. OF NO
SIGNIFICANCE

5. AFIT welcomes any further comments you may have on the above questions, or any additional details concerning the current application, future potential, or other value of this research. Please use the bottom part of this questionnaire for your statement(s).

NAME _____

GRADE _____

POSITION _____

ORGANIZATION _____

LOCATION _____

STATEMENT(s): _____

A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY INTO
THE SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL
LISTENING STRATEGIES OF
BEGINNING COLLEGE JAPANESE STUDENTS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

James Nobuyuki Fujita, B.A., M.A.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University

1984

Reading Committee:

Dr. Edward D. Allen
Dr. Gilbert A. Jarvis
Dr. James R. Morita



Approved By

Edward D. Allen
Advisor
College of Education

Copyright by
James Nobuyuki Fujita
1984

To Gail, Lori Ann,
Lea Ann, and Lance

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have been very fortunate indeed to have had so many who have assisted me in my educational endeavors: my teachers, my friends and my family.

First and foremost, I thank Dr. Edward T. White, who gave me a chance of a lifetime--the opportunity to attend college. Second, I acknowledge Dr. Harvey M. Taylor for advising me and being a friend throughout my pursuit of an M.A. degree. Third, I am very thankful to Dr. Edward D. Allen who served as my professor and Ph.D. advisor. Fourth, I am indebted to Dr. Gilbert A. Jarvis who provided insight and true appreciation into learning about learning. And last but not least, I am deeply obliged to have had Dr. James R. Morita as my professor of Japanese literature and a member of my reading committee.

Let me also acknowledge all my fellow graduate students in the Foreign Language Education program at The Ohio State University for providing me with their assistance, critical thinking, and support. In particular, I thank Gunther A. Mueller, Reiner H. Schaeffer, Michael D. Bush, Stuart R.

Rachlin, Elaine McKee, and Donna Inness for their encouragement and comradeship.

Finally, I owe my deepest gratitude to my family: my parents, Mr. and Mrs. George Fujita; my wife's parents, Mr. and Mrs. Takeo Morikuni; my wife, Gail; and my children, Lori Ann, Lea Ann, and Lance. They all provided me with the motivation and inspiration to complete the Ph.D. program and this dissertation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.	Page iii
VITA.	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	
Introduction to the Problem.	1
Purpose of the Study	16
Prerequisites.	17
Definition of Terms.	17
Hypotheses	20
Basic Assumptions and Limitations.	21
Value of the Study	22
Overview	23
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	
Introduction	24
The Listening Comprehension Process.	26
Research on Native Language Listening Comprehension.	29
Research on Listening comprehension in the Second Language.	38
Ethnographic Research in Education	40
Research on the Good Language Learner and His Strategies	44
Research on Learner Strategies in Reading- Grammar and Reading Tasks.	52
Research on Learner Strategies in Listening.	57
Summary.	58

III. DESCRIPTION OF THE FIRST ETHNOGRAPHIC INTERVIEWS

Purpose.	60
Subjects	73
Interview Facilities	74
Instrumentation--Listening Passages.	75
The Interview Principles	79
Interview Materials, Format and Procedures	81
Interview Excerpt #1	92
Interview Excerpt #2	96
Interview Excerpt #3	99
Interview Excerpt #4	100
Interview Excerpt #5	101
Summary.	112

IV. DESCRIPTION OF THE SECOND ETHNOGRAPHIC INTERVIEWS

Purpose.	114
Subjects and Setting	115
Interview Facilities and Materials	120
Interview Procedures and Instrumentation	121
Analysis of the Data	133
Results of the Second Study.	135
Summary.	140

V. LISTENING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Purpose.	141
Development of the Questionnaire	142
Limitations.	146
Administration of the Questionnaire.	146
Statistical Analysis	148
Interpretation of the Factors.	151
Discriminant Function Analysis	165
Pearson Correlation Coefficient.	173
Summary.	176

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary.	177
Conclusions.	181
Recommendations for Further Research	183
BIBLIOGRAPHY	188

APPENDICES

A. Materials Used in the First Study. . . .	201
B. Materials Used in the Second Study . . .	213
C. Reliability Analysis of the Listening Strategy Questionnaire	331
D. Factor Analysis of the Listening Strategy Questionnaire	345

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Listening Strategy Questionnaire, Principle Factoring Solution Before Rotation Used to Determine Salient Features	149
2. Listening Strategy Questionnaire, Principle Factoring Solution After Rotation.	151
3. Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 1 Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension .	152
4. Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 2 Focus/Search for Meaning	154
5. Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 3 Recall Notes	156
6. Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 4 Attention to Form, Self, and Others.	157
7. Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 5 Active Participant	159
8. Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 6 Prior Experiences and Language Study	160
9. Listening Strategy Questionnaire, Reliability Estimates.	161
10. Means for Japanese Language Students on Six Listening Comprehension Scores. . . .	166
11. Classification Matrix of Successful and Unsuccessful Listeners with Six Factors. . .	167
12. Wilks' lambda and F-Ratio with 1 and 15 Degrees of Freedom.	168

13.	Calculation of x^2 for Data in Table 11 . . .	170
14.	Classification Matrix of Successful and Unsuccessful Listeners with Three Factors. .	171
15.	Calculation of x^2 for Data in Table 15 . . .	172
16.	Pearson Correlation Coefficient for 17 Cases	174

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Listening Strategy Questionnaire, Cattell Scree Plot.	150

21

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Language teachers have continually searched for more effective methods to teach foreign languages. In the past half century, for example, the members of the language-teaching profession have at one time or another espoused various methods and approaches such as the direct method, the grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method, the cognitive-code approach, and perhaps what some people might even call an eclectic approach to the teaching of foreign languages. The main concern of teachers for many years has been the teaching process. More specifically, the teaching process was seen largely from a view of what teachers did to and for their students. The student's learning process has been largely ignored. Along with this unending search for the best method to teach foreign languages appeared a concern for scientific studies to validate the best instructional method.

Broad methodological studies were thus undertaken in the early 1960s. For example, in a study comparing the audiolingual method and the traditional method, Agard and

Dunkel (1948) concluded that students receiving aural-oral instruction did not perform significantly better in listening comprehension than students whose training had emphasized reading and writing (p. 248). In another methodological comparison, Sherer and Wertheimer (1964) reported that at the end of two semesters, audiolingual classes had significantly superior listening ability compared to classes taught by traditional methods. In yet another methodological comparison between the audiolingual-habit theory and the cognitive-code learning theory, conducted a few years later, Chastain and Woerdehoff (1968) reported that "there were no significant differences between the two methods" (p. 274) in improving the student's listening comprehension ability. And, in perhaps one of the most celebrated studies of one method versus another method (audiolingual method and the traditional method), the Pennsylvania Project, the results indicated that even after one and two years of foreign-language study, there were no significant differences in listening comprehension ability among the experimental groups (Smith, 1970, p. 197). As a whole, these broad methodological comparisons yielded inconclusive results concerning the most effective teaching methodology. According to Chastain (1971), one of the reasons for inconsistent results is the fact that "experimental design is not sophisticated enough at present

to control all the variables involved" (p. 131) in the instructional process.

Although foreign-language researchers and educators as well as psycholinguists have called for a halt to broad methodological comparisons in research as early as ten years ago, foreign-language teachers still seem to prefer certain teaching methodologies that provide them with the answers to teaching. After observing foreign-language classes Rubin (1975) made the following comment:

What fascinates me is how often the teacher plows ahead with the lesson seemingly with little awareness of what is going on in each student, and often without directing the attention of the poorer students to show how the successful student arrived at his answer. That is, many foreign language teachers are so concerned with finding the best method or with getting the correct answer that they fail to attend to the learning process. (pp. 44-45)

An over-dependence or concentration on teaching method alone can lead to what Strasheim (1969) called a "kind of educational quackery" (p. 494). She went on to add that "we have no real psychological or learning basis for our methods choices" (p. 494). Warriner (1971) also cautioned that "intelligent method converted to mindless habit turns full cycle and destroys method" (p. 41). It appears that the foreign-language teaching profession has recognized from experience that blind faith in teaching methods will not

ensure second-language learning success. Very recently, Brown (1980), emphasizes the important relationship between the learner and the learning process as well as the vital role of the instructor as critical thinker, decision maker, and facilitator of learning. He said:

The teacher needs to recognize and understand a multiplicity of cognitive variables active in the second language learning process and to make appropriate judgments about each individual, meeting the learner where he is and providing him with optimal opportunities for learning. (p. 98).

There appears to be definite need to better understand the learner and the learning process.

Instead of conducting further broad methodological comparisons, foreign-language researchers began recommending investigations of a narrower scope. Carroll (1965) advised "setting up more precisely controlled small-scale experiments to check particular phases of theories" (p. 280). Psycholinguists and foreign-language educators such as Jakobovits (1972), Lange (1972), and Jarvis and Omaggio (1976) also called for a halt to studies of one method versus another method. Instead, it was suggested that perhaps smaller-scale studies might be able to reveal more about the teaching-learning process. Although the scope of research was reduced, emphasis in the second-language teaching-learning process was still on what the teacher did

to the student. In the search for ways to improve the development of the aural comprehension skill, empirical investigations were conducted on such variables as: the presentation rate of the aural stimuli, the listening rate of the learner (time-compressed speech as well as time-expanded speech), the pauses in speech, and the length of pauses in speech.

In spite of these investigations into various aspects of the listening process, foreign-language educators (Clark, 1972, p. 42; Angelis, 1973, p. 103) and psycholinguists (Stern, 1973, p. 24; Foder et al., 1974, p. 361) cautioned that the knowledge level in the listening process and on the development of the listening comprehension ability in students is at an extremely elementary stage. In fact, Pimsleur et al. (1977) noted that "listening is the least understood of the four language skills and consequently the least well taught" (p. 2).

Listening comprehension is not a passive skill (Grittner, 1969, p. 244) but an active skill that requires the learner to contribute actively to the listening process in order to comprehend (Angelis, 1973; Stern, 1973). According to Quinn and Wheeler (1975), " . . . recent work in psycholinguistics has highlighted the very great complexity of the act of listening comprehension and has

shown that listening is a highly active process" (p. 5). Jakobovits (1971) goes on to emphasize the role of learner activities in the learning process:

Psychologists and educators have known for a long time that 'active learning' is far superior to 'passive learning' . . . we have rejected the notion of teaching language through some automatic conditioning process. Both of these considerations point to the crucial role of 'learner factors' in language acquisition and to the importance of knowing just what the learner contributes to the learning process so it can be taken into account in the teaching process. (p. 107)

It appears that not much is known about the listening process. Perhaps second-language learners may be able to provide some insights or at least some initial data of just what they do to understand speech.

In recent years, foreign-language researchers and educators have become increasingly aware of the student's active contribution to the learning process. These researchers have attempted to investigate the learning process by manipulating independent variables in smaller, more tightly-controlled experiments. Commenting on the empirical research undertaken thus far, Hosenfeld (1979a) says that:

The results of this mass research activity are disappointing. Conflicting findings and non-significant results typify much of the effort. Language teachers still do not know which of the many available teaching approaches to select or under which circumstances a particular approach would be most useful. Moreover, language learners do not appear to have achieved increased proficiency from the use of recommended techniques. (p. 51)

There seems to be a need to focus our attention on the learning process itself and not only the end product from which inferences and speculations are quite often made. We need to understand more about the learning processes that go on within the learner.

Second-language teachers forget that listening comprehension is a very difficult skill to develop in a student. Carroll (1964) reminds foreign-language teachers that the comprehension of speech by a person who does not understand the language is an "astonishing feat" (p. 58). Rivers (1968) cautions instructors by noting that "it is in listening comprehension particularly that the teacher can easily underestimate the difficulties of the student" (p. 146). Hughes (1974) adds a further warning that "we cannot assume that the foreign [language] learner has the same focusing ability" (p. 77) as a native speaker. In fact, the foreign-language teaching profession admits that very little is known about the listening process (Angelis, 1973; Stern,

1973). It is apparent that foreign-language educators consider listening comprehension as a very difficult and complex skill. In fact, Pimsleur et al. (1977) noted that "Until recently, teachers have assumed that listening comprehension would develop of itself if we taught our students to speak" (p. 2).

Other foreign-language educators such as Chastain (1976, p. 284) and Allen and Valette (1977, p. 179) not only agree that listening was considered to develop automatically as an adjunct of speech but also that it has been long-neglected. Despite numerous mentions of inattentiveness to the development of listening skill by Rivers (1971, p. 136), Mueller (1974, p. 19) and Quinn and Wheeler (1975, p. 2) in our profession's books and journals, the listening process remains a virtually unexplored area. Angelis (1973) as well as Benson and Hjelt (1978) believe that listening comprehension is fundamental to the communication process and that it actually precedes the speaking skill.

During the earlier part of the last decade, there was increased interest and emphasis by psychologists and educators in the learning process as well as the individual learner. As Jakobovits (1970) notes:

The learner makes his own contribution to the learning situation and these learner strategies are to a greater or lesser extent independent of the teacher's activities. What is needed is a more detailed and explicit description of the specific activities of both the teacher and the student in the instructional situation. (p. 74)

In order to describe student's activities during instruction, Hosenfeld (1975) initiated research into what students in a level-two French language class were actually doing when confronted with a reading-grammar task. She discovered that the majority of students sought out the essential task to be accomplished (e.g., select the appropriate preposition preceding an adjective or a verb in indefinite pronoun phrases, replace a noun indirect object with a pronoun, etc.) and completely ignored the meaning of the sentences. A few students, on the other hand, always attended to meaning in grammar exercises even when meaning was not a requirement for successful completion. In addition, there were other students who fluctuated between processing and not processing the meaning of sentences (pp. 157-162). In other words, because students possess learning strategies that could be of considerable interest to foreign-language teachers, researchers, and material developers, Hosenfeld (1979b) suggests that "the chief focus in the learning-teaching process is the learning path (learning strategy) which a student takes in performing an

instructional task" (p. 67). In fact, Hosenfeld (1979a) advocates changing the traditional view of foreign-language teaching:

What is needed is a reversal of our thinking about the instructional process. Instead of initially focusing upon the teaching act (or language stimulus) and viewing learning as adapting to this act, we should initially focus upon the learning act and view teaching as adapting to learning. In this reconceptualization of the instructional process, which we might label the 'learning-teaching process', students provide the first input into instruction in the form of learner strategies and teaching consists of adapting to this input. (p. 52)

Other foreign-language educators (Ervin-Tripp, 1970; Birkmaier, 1973; Rubin, 1975) have also suggested that the learning process be looked at more closely in order to better understand and perhaps improve classroom teaching. Few researchers, however, have investigated the learning process. Not only foreign-language education but also the field of psychology has recently become very interested in the learning process.

Cognitive psychologists, Ausubel et al. (1978) also seem to support the notion that learning theory subsumes teaching theory for they note that:

Even though a valid theory of learning cannot tell us how to teach in a prescriptive sense, it does offer us the most feasible point of departure for discovering general principles of teaching that can be formulated in terms of both intervening psychological processes and cause-effect relationships. It is largely from a theory of learning that we can develop defensible notions of how crucial factors in the learning-teaching situation can most effectively be manipulated. (p. 15)

Ausubel et al. seem to suggest that perhaps teaching principles should be guided by learning principles. One way of enhancing learning principles is to determine what learners are doing during the learning process.

Very recently, several researchers have begun to investigate learner strategies and what makes a good language learner good. According to Omaggio (1978), "if we knew more about what successful learners did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners and thereby increase their chances of success" (p. 2). These researchers have identified certain characteristics of a good learner by observations, questionnaires, interviews, and empirical research. These characteristics of a good language learner undoubtedly describe a good language student. More importantly, this line of research has begun to discover the strategies used by good language learners in accomplishing language learning tasks. Similar to the broad methodological studies of the past, the research on

strategies of good learners covers a rather broad area; that is, these studies encompass all language learning skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Following the advice of Jakobovits (1972) and other researchers to pursue small-scale investigations, this study will concentrate on listening. The listening skill was selected for investigation because of the important role it plays in our daily lives, especially in the learning process. According to Taylor (1973), a researcher on listening:

As early as 1926, research had established that 70 percent of the average adult's working day was spent in verbal communication, with 45 percent of that time spent in listening acts. Reading, on the other hand, occupied only 16 percent of the verbal communication time. In 1949, explorations of listening in the elementary classroom led to the discovery that 57.5 percent of class time was spent in listening. Recently, researchers have estimated that close to 90 percent of the class time in high schools and colleges is spent in listening (p. 3)

Despite the apparent prominent role of the listening skill in the learning process, listening researchers and language arts educators agree that listening proficiency has long been taken for granted and virtually overlooked. Taylor (1973) declares that listening is "an act accepted by children and adults as second nature . . ." (p. 3). In addition, Friedman (1978) states, "the ability to listen has

been taken for granted and given little attention in language arts programs" (p. 4). Furthermore, Devine (1978) reports that "Surveys of actual classroom practices indicate little time devoted to direct instruction in listening skills, even though the evidence indicates strongly that such instruction works" (p. 300). Landry (1974) further noted that listening has been disregarded, "not only as an area of instruction . . . but also as an area of research" (p. 75). There seems to be a definite need for more investigations into the development of the listening skill in the learning process of one's native language.

Whether in a second-language classroom or in a foreign country, the ability to understand what is being spoken by the instructor or the native speaker is no doubt of prime importance. Foreign-language educators discovered, however, that it was possible for students to learn and develop their speaking skill, without a corresponding development of their listening skill. Over 13 years ago, Belasco (1971), reflecting on the results of the 1960-1961 Pennsylvania State University Academic-Year French Institute, stated that "it is possible to develop so called 'speaking' ability (vocalizing) and yet be virtually incompetent in understanding spoken language" (p. 194). Commenting along the same lines, Chastain (1976) remarked that "the greatest

weakness of students who go abroad is not their inability to speak, but their inability to understand the native's answer" (p. 284). Little, if anything, is known about the development of the listening skill in a second language. Before prescribing steps to the improvement of listening proficiency, it must be determined just what learners do when they listen.

By investigating the listening strategies employed by successful and unsuccessful learners of beginning Japanese, perhaps more information can be added to the little knowledge available concerning the development of the listening comprehension skill. By knowing more about this critical process, foreign-language educators can better help their students in developing their language competence in listening. This is an exploratory study using both a questionnaire and the "think aloud" technique in discovering the listening strategies of successful and unsuccessful second-language learners. As Stern (1975) notes:

It is by a better understanding of learners, their strategies, their thoughts and feelings during the learning process, their successes as well as their difficulties and failures, that we may gradually arrive at a better understanding of language learning and teaching. (p. 317)

Ethnographic research appears to be a promising technique to assist foreign-language educators and researchers in their efforts to better understand what learners do during the learning process. As Spradley (1979) explains:

In our complex society the need for understanding how other people see their experience has never been greater. Ethnography is a tool with great promise. It offers the educator a way of seeing schools through the eyes of students. (p. iv)

Hosenfeld (1979b), who has conducted research on learning strategies, remarks that, "despite their central role in the learning process, little information is presently available concerning strategies second language learners use with tasks intended to develop their proficiency in the basic skills" (p. 68). According to her, not only can learning strategies be identified but they "can be described, analyzed, compared, and categorized" (p. 72). Hosenfeld (1976) also discovered that there are not only different strategies used by students when completing a task but different attitudes as well that are associated with those same strategies. It behooves us as a profession to learn more about and to gain further insight into what our students do when they are asked to perform a language learning task.

In summary, with the increased attention of foreign-language teachers and researchers as well as psychologists on the learning process, the learner's active contribution to that process, and initial information pertaining to the existence of learner strategies in learning, an exploratory study into one of the more neglected skills, listening comprehension, appears warranted.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this investigation is to identify listening strategies of first-year Japanese-language students when presented with a listening comprehension task commonly utilized in the foreign-language classroom. If successful listening strategies can be identified and categorized, perhaps they can be shared and taught to those students who do poorly on listening exercises. Before the main problem on listening strategies can be researched, however, three other prerequisites must be resolved. The solution to each of the three prerequisites will lead to the main objective of this study.

Prerequisites

Prerequisite I: The first prerequisite is to determine through interviews whether or not a foreign-language learners (college-level) can verbalize about the listening strategies they use on a listening comprehension task. If the subjects cannot do so, the investigator will try to determine why. If indeed the subjects cannot describe what they do, or they do not want to participate, he or she will be thanked, dismissed, and reported as such in this study.

Prerequisite II: The second prerequisite is to develop an interview procedure as well as retrospective, contemplative, and experiential questions to elicit students' listening strategies on a listening comprehension task.

Prerequisite III: The third prerequisite is to produce and utilize a questionnaire on listening strategies that will assist in identifying factors involved in listening comprehension.

Definition of Terms

1. Listening Strategy: A strategy is defined as "internally organized capabilities which the learner makes use of in guiding his own attending, learning, remembering, and thinking" (Gagné, 1974, p. 64) to include covert as well

as overt processes a learner employs to attach meaning to continuous speech.

2. Listening Comprehension Task: For the purposes of this study, a narration was selected because it is often employed in standardized foreign language listening comprehension tests as well as in listening exercises in the foreign-language classroom. A narration is a continuous stream of speech on a single topic uttered at normal speed by a native speaker of the language using lexicon and syntactical structures previously encountered by the learner in another format (dialogue) commonly found in foreign-language textbooks.

3. Successful and Unsuccessful Second Language Listener: A successful second language listener is a subject who scored above the median on a group of listening comprehension tests whereas an unsuccessful second language listener is a subject who scored below the median.

4. Participant Observation: A research procedure that utilizes the investigator as the instrument (a participant observer) in the study where the objectives are to "engage in activities appropriate to the situation and to observe activities, people, and physical aspects of the situation" (Spradley, 1980, p. 54).

5. Ethnographic Interview: A research technique of interviewing subjects (informants) of a study in order to produce a description of the situation under investigation.

6. Triangulation: Involves the use of several methods of data collection from which the investigator's interpretations are made (Hinman, 1980, p. 2). This study used participant observation during the initial portion of the research, ethnographic interviews along with audio recordings of same during the majority of the investigation, and a questionnaire on listening strategy.

7. Member Checks: A technique "whereby data and interpretations are continuously tested as they are derived with members of the various audiences and groups from which data are solicited" (Guba, 1981, p. 21).

8. Thick Description: A process of collecting and sorting out the multiplicity of complex conceptual structures in the study of a social setting that will permit comparison of this context to other possible contexts to which transfer might be contemplated (Geertz, 1973).

9. Audit Trail: A process that enables "an external auditor to examine the processes whereby data were collected and analyzed, and interpretations were made" (Guba, 1981, p. 24).

10. Practice Reflexivity: A procedure to "intentionally reveal to his audience the underlying epistemological assumptions which cause him (the investigator) to formulate a set of questions in a particular way, and finally to present his findings in a particular way" (Ruby, 1980).

11. Grounded Theory: Describes a method by which social scientists can ground their theory and research in the reality they are studying. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), "our approach, allowing substantive concepts and hypotheses to emerge first, on their own, enables the analyst to ascertain which, if any, existing formal theory may help him generate his substantive theories" (p. 34).

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Foreign-language learners (college level) can ascertain and relate the listening strategies they use during a listening comprehension task commonly used in foreign-language classrooms.

Hypothesis 2: An interview procedure can be developed to determine students' listening strategies in a listening comprehension task.

Hypothesis 3: A questionnaire on listening strategy can be produced to identify factors involved in listening comprehension tasks.

Hypothesis 4: The self-report data will reveal that successful and unsuccessful learners utilize different listening strategies in a listening comprehension task.

Hypothesis 5: The questionnaire and self-report data will reveal that a majority of the students translate the narration into English when understanding the passage is a condition for correct responding.

Hypothesis 6: The self-report data will reveal that listening comprehension tasks of this nature create negative attitudes toward learning a foreign language in a significant proportion of students.

Basic Assumptions

This study assumes that:

1. All subjects possess normal hearing ability.
2. Listening comprehension is measurable by having subjects write an English summary of the taped material.

3. Listening strategy on listening comprehension tasks is not static. It probably continues to improve over time. One can only measure that subject's listening strategy during the period of the investigation.

Value of the Study

Foreign-language educators agree that the second-language learner can provide some valuable insights into one of the most neglected of language skills, listening. The "think aloud" technique, most recently employed in foreign-language education by Hosenfeld (1977a, 1977b, 1979b) with reading-grammar and reading tasks, will be utilized in this investigation. The questionnaire will be used to identify factors involved in the listening strategies of students on listening comprehension tasks. Both the questionnaire and the interview techniques should be considered as an initial and exploratory attempt at determining what goes on within a learner as he or she accomplishes a listening comprehension task. These two instruments will be utilized to identify students' listening strategies while performing a listening comprehension task so that teachers, researchers, and material developers will know more about these strategies. As more information is gathered on the listening strategies employed by successful students on a listening comprehension

task, those data can be disseminated to others who are not as successful so that they too can perhaps develop their listening comprehension skill.

Overview

This investigation is divided into six chapters followed by the bibliography and appendices. The first chapter introduced the problem to be investigated, the purpose of the study, the prerequisites for the investigation, the hypotheses to be tested, the definition of terms relevant to the study, and the value of the inquiry. The second chapter reviews research pertinent to this exploratory study. The third chapter describes not only the development of the instruments used in the first study but also the first study itself. The fourth chapter reports and analyzes the second study, the successful and unsuccessful listening strategies that students use on a listening comprehension task. The fifth chapter recounts the development of the questionnaire used in the study as well as its results. Finally, the sixth chapter provides a summary of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this investigation is to determine the listening strategies of successful and unsuccessful second-language learners in beginning college Japanese. When an attempt is made to understand speech, listeners endeavor to extract meaning from aural stimuli. Research and classroom experience in the learning of one's native language have shown, however, that students differ in their abilities to decode and understand the spoken word. In second-language learning, this disparity in listening comprehension ability is also quite evident. What is lacking in the development of both the native and second language listening comprehension skills is the knowledge of what a person actually does in order to comprehend. Thus, this is an initial study to identify listening strategies of second-language students when presented with a listening comprehension task in a beginning college Japanese class.

The learning process, in general, and especially the listening process, is a covert activity that cannot always

be observed. Gagne (1977), Dubois, Alverson, and Staley (1979) and Gagne and Briggs (1979) are in agreement that the learning process occurs within a person and that it is a private event for that individual. Carroll (1971), indicated that "comprehension is an internal, subjective process that is in general not open to external observation" (p. 8). It seems as if the learning process is similar to an iceberg in that the vast majority of it lies hidden from view. Just because the learning process is an internal activity not open to observation is no reason to ignore it or to overlook it. In fact, Smith (1975) noted that there have been many more experiments dealing with "visual aspects of perception, partly because it is easier to monitor what the eye is doing compared with the ear . . ." (p. 49).

In the learning-teaching process that Hosenfeld (1979a) recommended, the learner is seen as an active contributor in the instructional process (p. 52). Other foreign-language educators (Jakobovits, 1972, p. 223; Cook, 1978, p. 84) have arrived at a similar conclusion. Kennedy (1973, p. 76), Birckbichler and Omaggio (1977, p. 4) and Cook (1978, p. 84) all agree that learners employ their own learning strategies when performing second-language learning tasks. As Frechette (1976) suggested in his review of research pertaining to the second-language teaching profession, there

is need for continued research in all areas including learner strategies (pp. 384-385). In spite of Frechette's recommendation, "little information is presently available concerning strategies second-language learners use with tasks intended to develop their proficiency in the basic skills" (Hosenfeld, 1979b, p. 68). This is still the case today. Consequently, there is limited information regarding learning strategies and the listening skill.

Seven areas of research are relevant to the present inquiry: the listening comprehension process, research on native language listening comprehension, research on listening comprehension in the second language, ethnographic studies in foreign-language education, research on the good-language learners and their strategies, research on learner strategies in reading-grammar and reading tasks, and research on learner strategies in listening.

The Listening Comprehension Process

Listening comprehension has been defined in many ways by foreign-language educators, cognitive psychologists and psycholinguists. Carroll (1972) for example, says that, "it is the process of apprehending the 'meaning' of something--the 'meaning' of a word, of a phrase or idiom, of a sentence, or of a longer discourse" (p. 10). According to

Goodman (1974), "oral language is a code, which the listener must decode by processing the oral symbolic input to determine the underlying structure and derive meaning" (p. 230). Smith (1975b) explains comprehension as "making sense . . ." (p. 10). Clark and Clark (1977), psycholinguists, view listening comprehension as "turning words into ideas, trying to reconstruct the perceptions, feelings, and intentions the words were meant to grasp" (p. 3). Regardless of the above stated definitions of listening comprehension by recognized experts in their respective fields, they all seem to be getting at extracting meaning or making sense of what is heard.

Although foreign-language educators and researchers (Angelis, 1973; Rivers, 1976) agree that listening comprehension is a very complex activity that has long been overlooked and taken for granted, not much information is available on exactly what should be taught, how it should be taught, or how it is developed and learned. There is very limited knowledge concerning this very important and essential skill. Research on native language listening comprehension provides some interesting insights into this highly complex process.

Investigations conducted with adults and college students have shown that not only is listening an important

skill in daily life but that, in fact, people are very poor listeners in their native language. Rankin (1930) discovered that adults spend the following percentage of time on the various skills in a day: listening, 42%; speaking, 32%; reading, 15%; and writing, 11%. Another study by Bird (1953) revealed that college students spend their time in the following manner: listening, 42%; speaking, 25%; reading, 15%; and writing, 18%. There is very little doubt that people spend a lot of time listening. What is surprising is the fact that college students comprehend approximately 50% or less of what they hear in a lecture (Nichols, 1949; Irvin, 1953; Brown, 1959). Although people comprehend half or less than half of what they hear, very little appears to have been done to improve this very important learning skill.

Landry (1969) pointed out that most elementary schools lack programs to develop listening skills. Devine (1978) further noted that listening "is not generally accepted as part of the standard school curriculum" (p. 300). It is no small wonder why children who are not taught how or what to listen for are expected to somehow automatically learn to understand what their teachers are saying in classrooms and lecture halls.

It seems as if the development of the listening comprehension skill has long been disregarded not only in foreign-language learning but also in the learning of one's first language. Psychologists and psycholinguists, however, have initiated long-needed research in the area of language comprehension.

Research on Native Language Listening Comprehension

Research from the fields of psychology and psycholinguistics on native language comprehension has suggested that much more is involved than mere interpretation of linguistic input. Researchers in psychology, for example, noted that subjects were able to provide more information than was available in the original material (Bransford & Franks, 1971; Bransford, Barclay & Franks, 1972). According to Carroll (1971):

It would seem inappropriate to expect the individual to comprehend more information than has been 'committed' to the message itself, yet we know that readers (listeners) are often able to 'make sense of' unclear messages by some as yet unexplicated inferential process. (p. 26)

Until then, it was thought that the analysis of the structure of the language (Bever, 1970) was sufficient to provide insights into the language learning process. Freedle and Carroll (1972), however, after reviewing studies

on language comprehension, proposed that the learner is an active contributor to the language comprehension process. They noted that:

In most discourse-understanding situations the perceiver must contribute background knowledge and his presuppositions to the understanding of the message. What is explicitly given in discourse represents only cues to underlying semantic structure. If this is so, the study of the manner in which 'information' is processed must take into account not only the surface structure of discourse but also what the language perceiver must contribute to its understanding. (p. 363)

Studies on connected discourse have thus shown that what the learner does with the aural stimuli has a bearing on how much material is processed.

The study of connected oral discourse is a relatively new area for language researchers. Discourse processing or comprehension is currently the focus of attention for those who believe that the study of language can be furthered by studying connected discourse rather than single sentences or nonsense syllables. Historically, Freedle (1977, p. xv) notes:

The scientific study of the structure and function of language has witnessed a lawful and cumulative progression: the initial effort involved in the study of language's sound systems; later, the units of interest broadened to include morphology (Bloomfield, 1933), then single sentences (Chomsky, 1957), and more recently multisentence discourse contexts (Crothers, 1972; Frederiksen, 1972; Grimes, 1972; Kintsch, 1974).

This preliminary investigation into listening strategies on a listening comprehension task will deal with connected discourse. Until almost 20 years ago, research on language comprehension by psychologists were mainly conducted with some nonsense syllables, words, and single sentences. Not much attention was paid to the study of sentences or connected discourse. In fact, "it was taken for granted that problems involving single sentences needed to be well understood first. But it was further assumed that once these problems were understood it would be a simple matter to extend this knowledge base to the problems of discourse comprehension" (Freedle & Carroll, 1972, p. ix). In any case, researchers were primarily interested in what was acquired by subjects and not how it was done.

Ausubel et al. (1978) went on to claim that until recently, the vast majority of psychological experiments have been too laboratory oriented and not realistic of what really goes on in reality in the instructional process. They note:

The more scientifically conducted research in learning theory has been undertaken largely by psychologists unconnected with the educational enterprise. Understandably then, this research has investigated problems quite remote from the type of learning that goes on in the classroom. The focus has been on animal learning or on short-term and fragmentary rote or nonverbal forms of human learning rather than on the learning of organized bodies of meaningful material. (p. 11-12)

Subsequently, researchers began investigating the acquisition of meaningful prose materials. According to a review of the methodology employed in these studies, Faw and Waller (1976) note that the techniques to control what the subject does while learning are "by means of special instructions, suggestions or questions, and observe what effects these variations have on learning and retention" (p. 692). Although these studies of the acquisition of meaningful prose materials are more appropriate than past laboratory experiments involving the use of nonsense syllables, words, or single sentences, they still appear to concern themselves with how students are manipulated and not how they actually comprehend the material.

Due to the sparse information available in second-language learning on learner activities during the learning process, research relevant from native language research will be cited to understand better this phenomenon called listening comprehension.

There is a growing body of empirical data on native language comprehension research that indicate that listeners do not merely store linguistic inputs from sentences or connected discourse but use other information (e.g., knowledge of the world) to modify and elaborate on their general knowledge of the world (Bransford & Franks, 1971; Bransford, Barclay, & Franks, 1972; Johnson, Bransford, & Soloman, 1973; Bransford & Johnson, 1972, 1973; Clark & Clark, 1977; Bransford & McCarrell, 1977). The aforementioned studies reveal that a comprehender not only hears but also stores and creates semantic meaning of input information using his or her prior knowledge.

Based on research data on native language comprehension, psychologists and psycholinguists have postulated several language/listening comprehension models or approaches. According to Frederiksen (1977), discourse processing involves two levels: an interpretive level and an inferential level. These two levels appear to operate simultaneously. At the first level, sentences are interpreted primarily by one's knowledge of the language. While, at the second level, one utilizes both the knowledge of language as well as stored semantic knowledge or knowledge of the world to assist in comprehension. These two discourse comprehension levels are thought to operate

concurrently and not independently. Precisely when each level is used, how each level is employed, or by whom is not well understood. It is interesting to note that Frederiksen (1975) had previously theorized two approaches to comprehension: interpretive and constructivist. While the name of the former approach and the one mentioned above in his new model refer to the use of language to generate meaning, the label given to the latter approach has changed from constructivist to inferential. Perhaps of more interest is the fact that while his current model sees two levels operating in unison, his older model was observed to be a dichotomous one. In other words, Frederiksen's current model accounts for both levels of processing that could be occurring at the same time instead of saying that comprehension is an either this or that approach.

Another pair of psychologists, Lindsay and Norman (1977), believe that human information processing can be explained by a combination of two processes: a data-driven process and a conceptually-driven process. In data-driven processes, the incoming signals are decoded by the sensory system. This type of language analysis is likewise called "bottom-up" analysis since "it starts with the 'lowest' level of information--sensory data--and works its way up the chain to the 'highest' level--meaning structures" (Lindsay &

Norman, p. 488). On the other hand, conceptually-driven processes operate from the other direction; beginning with what should happen based on the situation or one's stored knowledge of the world. This type of analysis is called "top-down" analysis "because it starts with the 'highest' level of analysis--meaning structures--and works down toward the 'lowest' level--the arriving data" (Lindsay & Norman, pp. 488-489). This model also perceives the analysis of language to be an interaction of two levels of processing a "bottom-up" as well as a "top-down" system. Although the terminology is different, this resembles the approach espoused by Frederiksen.

Psycholinguists, Clark and Clark (1977), also offer a bi-level model of language comprehension. They view comprehension in its narrowest definition as a "construction process". It is the process by which listeners interpret the sounds spoken by a speaker or put simply it is the process of building "meanings from sounds" (p. 43). In its broader definition, comprehension is seen as a "utilization process." This process involves the listener to determine what the speaker meant by the utterance and to carry out the speaker's intentions.

For the purposes of this investigation, the construction process offers some insight into how people decipher the

meaning of what they hear. According to Clark and Clark (1977), two approaches are part of the construction process: The syntactic approach and the semantic approach. In the former approach, "listeners are assumed to use the surface features of a sentence in coming to its interpretation. They identify sounds, words, and larger constituents and from them build and connect propositions in an interpretation for the whole sentence" (p. 57). Clark and Clark's definition of the syntactic approach is very similar to what Frederiksen calls an interpretive level and what Lindsay and Norman call a data-driven or bottom-up process of language comprehension. In the semantic approach, "listeners are assumed to work from the interpretation a sentence must be conveying. They work on the assumption that the sentence refers to entities, events, states, and facts . . ." (Clark & Clark, 1977, p. 57) that the discourse fits an appropriate situation. Clark and Clark's explanation of the semantic approach approximates what Frederiksen calls an inferential level and what Lindsay and Norman call a conceptually-driven or top-down process of language comprehension. Clark and Clark (1977) summarize their discussion of approaches to comprehension by stating that "listeners probably use some flexible mixture of these two approaches" (p. 57). The question that remains unanswered is who uses the various approaches and to what

extent during the comprehension process.

Because this investigation is concerned with listening strategies employed by different learners on a listening comprehension task, namely a passage, the memory for substance or product of the comprehension process seems relevant. Along with memory for substance, Clark and Clark claim that people have "study strategies" (p. 154) or what this investigator has termed listening strategies. These authors have identified four study strategies commonly used by people for comprehending prose. They are:

1. Draw the obvious conclusion/infer from their knowledge of the world.
2. Try to integrate new information with what they already know.
3. Try to build the interpretation they think they were meant to build, and they may take them beyond the direct meaning of a sentence to its indirect meaning.
4. Not only draw implications as each sentence comes along, but also create new representations, unrelated to any single sentence, to capture the global situation being described. (pp. 154-163)

Although people use the above strategies, not much is known about who uses them, when they are utilized, why they are used, or how much they are utilized.

Research on Listening Comprehension in the Second Language

In second-language learning, research on listening comprehension is scarce and, furthermore, little information could be found on what students do during the listening comprehension process. The research that is available concerning the listening comprehension process involves those conducted for doctoral dissertations.

All three studies involve the manipulation of independent variables controlled by the researcher; the studies do not tell us what the students did in order to understand the various listening passages.

Flaherty (1975), for example, manipulated presentation rates (100%, 135%, and 170%) on a passage to determine its effect on listening comprehension. In general, her data support the notion of time-expanded speech for foreign language students. Flaherty noted that "all students do not appear to benefit from such deceleration and that all percentages of time-expansion may not be equally effective" (p. 103). We still do not know who is helped by time-expanded speech.

Neff (1977) researched the effects of pauses between major constituents within or between sentences. His study also dealt with a researcher-controlled variable, a pause of

two to three seconds. He summarized his findings by noting that pauses do not necessarily assist in the development of listening comprehension. If a pause does not help learners comprehend, no doubt that more inquiries should be conducted to determine just what does aid the learner in the comprehension process.

Mueller (1979) examined the effects of a contextual visual on the listening comprehension process. His data indicated that "the effects of a contextual visual are inversely related to the listener's proficiency in the language" (p. 78). He noted that less proficient students would more likely use the contextual visual to assist in comprehension than the more proficient students who would primarily rely on the linguistic input. Mueller's finding is similar to the Bransford and Johnson study (1972) on native language comprehension, which suggest that students actively search for and utilize a context (the contextual visual) in order to comprehend.

Although the three studies deal with variables in the listening comprehension process, only the third study suggests that the learner is an active contributor to the comprehension process. In Mueller's study, the contextual visual aided comprehension for the less skillful student rather than the skillful student. Because only one

independent variable, the contextual visual, was manipulated, no other information regarding how students comprehend listening comprehension exercises could be determined.

According to Smith (1975), "the meanings of utterances--or at least important aspects of the meanings of utterances--lie outside the utterance, in the mind of the . . . listener . . ." (p. 107). He goes on to add that "the listener does not extract meaning from the surface structure of language because there is no meaning there. He must supply it himself. We do not take meaning from the language we hear or look at; we bring meaning to it" (p. 107). Because there is a lack of knowledge of the various mental processes involved in learning a foreign language, asking the learner to think aloud as he performs a listening comprehension task may provide some insights into one of the least understood and essential skills in learning a foreign language, that of comprehending what is spoken.

Ethnographic Research in Education

Ethnographic research in the United States is in its embryonic stages, especially in foreign-language education. Ethnography is, according to Webster's dictionary (1978), "the branch of anthropology that deals with specific

cultures, especially those of non-literate peoples or groups" (p. 481). The ethnographic researcher describes a particular culture by doing field work: participating, observing, interviewing, et cetera; after which, the data is analyzed and then presented in written form. As Spradley (1979) notes:

It is a pathway into understanding the cultural differences that make us what we are as human beings. Perhaps the most important force behind the quiet ethnographic revolution is the widespread realization that cultural diversity is one of the great gifts bestowed on the human species. (p. v)

Within the last 10 to 15 years, there has been a steady shift in which disciplines employ ethnographic research and where such studies are done. As Spradley (1979) once stated, "the value of ethnography in understanding our own society was often overlooked" (p. 12). In 1980, Rist made the following comment:

Ethnographic research in American education has heretofore been the activity of a small band of researchers, overwhelmingly trained in the disciplines of sociology and anthropology. But at present, it is finding widespread application among researchers from diverse disciplinary backgrounds. (p. 8)

According to the literature, there are several reasons for a shift in research methodology from quantitative to qualitative measurement and in the use of field methods in

educational research. Ianni and Orr (1979) note that:

Over the last decade, there has been a steadily increasing interest among educators in qualitative measurement and in the use of field methods in educational research. To a considerable extent, this interest grows out of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which pushed education, and consequently the research which informs it, into a concern with cultural as well as individual differences. To some extent it is the result of dissatisfaction among the clients of educational research who tend to see traditional educational research paradigms [quantitative research] as abstractions from the reality of the everyday life of the schools. To some extent it also results from the growing sophistication of educational researchers themselves as they begin to explore methodologies (p.87)

Other educators claim that there has been too much emphasis on quantitative research. Hall (1980) says that, "as many of the tightly focused research tools appear to be revealing less, it is an appropriate time to return to an emphasis on more open-minded collection and hypothesis-generating studies" (p. 349). After reviewing Azrin (1977), Bronfenbrenner (1977), Cronbach (1975), and Goodlad et al. (1970), Tikunoff and Ward note that qualitative methodology, "not only is increasing in acceptance, but that is has important implications for understanding the teaching/learning process in the classroom" (p.275).

The primary objective of the classroom ethnographer is to interview, analyze, and interpret classroom events from

the "various frames of reference of the participants" (Johnson & Gardner, 1980, p. 375). Spradley (1979) concurs and adds that, "the essential core of ethnography is this concern with the meaning of actions and events to the people we seek to understand" (p.5). Wilson (1977) summarizes the primary objective of this qualitative research methodology when he said that, "ethnographic research seeks to discover what these meaning structures are, how they develop, and how they influence behavior, in as comprehensive and objective fashion as possible" (p. 254). Thus, the ethnographic researcher depends on informants to provide the data necessary to accomplish the study. According to Filstead (1979), not only is the informant important but also the language that they use to describe what they do. He states that, "the actual words of the subjects are thought to be critical in the process of conveying the meaning systems of the participants which eventually become the results or findings of the research" (p. 27).

Prior to reviewing ethnographic studies regarding specific second-language skills, the research results available on the good-language learner will be discussed. The data for the following investigations was obtained through observations, interviews, and questionnaires.

Research on the Good-Language Learner and His Strategies

The sparseness of literature available on the good-language learner reflects the relative newness of the topic. Only a handful of researchers have pursued this line of research. Their rationale for describing what the good learner is doing, their procedures used to discover the good learners, the results of their study, and finally, inadequacies of the research as well as rationale for this study will be discussed.

A small group of second-language researchers have chosen to investigate the personality and cognitive style variables and strategies of a good-language learner. The objective of their study is to determine what makes the good-language learner good. They hope to identify those variables in order to use them with poor-language learners, especially in remedial work with a specific language learning task.

According to Cohen (1977), several researchers (Rubin, 1975; Naiman, Frohlich, & Todesco, 1975; Naiman, Frohlich, & Stern, 1975; Tucker, Hamayan, & Genesee, 1975) have tried to discover the personality and cognitive style variables of good-language learners. The four variables that seem to have had an effect on language learning are field independence, tolerance of ambiguity, category width, and

extroversion. Omaggio (1978) felt, however, that another avenue of research might prove more beneficial: There seems to be no configuration of characteristics that results in a good-language learner, but certain learning strategies can be identified that are frequently associated with good language learning experiences" (p. 2).

A few researchers have attempted to identify strategies employed by the good-language learner. Rubin (1975), a sociolinguist, was interested in the underlying reasons for the differences in success between good and poor foreign language learners. She was curious about the strategies that successful language learners used, hoping that strategies could be uncovered and possibly taught to less successful learners. Rubin defined strategies as "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43). The list of seven strategies she uncovered was as follows:

1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.
2. The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication.
3. The good language learner is often not inhibited.
4. In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form.
5. The good language learner practices.

6. The good language learner monitors his own and the speech of others.
7. The good language learner attends to meaning.
(pp. 45-48)

According to Rubin (1975), the above list was gathered by "observing students in classrooms in California and Hawaii, by observing myself and by talking to other good language learners, and by eliciting observations from some second-language teachers" (p. 44). Rubin had used the ethnographic research technique of participant-observer in identifying strategies employed by the good-language learner.

There appear to be weaknesses, however, in Rubin's procedures for determining the strategies of the good-language learner. She did not compare the learning strategies of successful as well as unsuccessful learners but chose instead to observe only the former. In addition, the criteria for selection of a good-language learner were not delineated in her publication. Furthermore, her observation procedures and line of questioning used with good-language learners were not mentioned. It seems that too much attention was placed on the overt actions of the learner without any concern for his internal processes. Finally, it seems that the strategies employed by the good-language learner apply to the totality of the language

learning process--listening, speaking, reading, and writing. An investigation into one of the language learning skills may provide more information than a broad generalization across all the language learning skills. Despite the deficiencies noted above, however, Rubin's report provided a starting point for more systematic investigation into the area of learner strategies.

The Modern Language Center of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education on Effective Language Teaching and Learning initiated research into the differences between good- and poor-language learners. Stern (1975) advised that by contrasting the two types of learners, "by discovering how good language learners proceed it should be possible to help problem learners to improve their approach and in this way become more effective" (p. 304). Consequently, this study appeared to have taken the step to differentiate good and poor learners, a step that Rubin had not touched upon in her study. Although Stern did not define strategy, he uncovered ten learning strategies:

1. A personal learning style or positive learning strategies.
2. An active approach to the learning task.
3. A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers.
4. Technical know-how about how to tackle a language.

5. Strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and of revising the system progressively.
6. Constantly searching for meaning.
7. Willingness to practice.
8. Willingness to use the language in real communication.
9. Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
10. Developing the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it. (pp. 311-316)

Stern (1975) concluded his study by warning his readers that the above learning strategies "are still highly speculative . . ." (p. 317). His study had two deficiencies. First, similar to Rubin's report, Stern had based his findings on his own observations and experiences as a teacher and learner and his readings pertaining to the topic (p. 311). He did not conduct any interviews with students. Another shortcoming is the fact that the investigations by Rubin and Stern refer to language learning in general, and not to specific skill areas.

In a review of literature on successful second-language speakers, Cohen (1977) remarked that "it may be that too much time has been devoted to teaching people how to teach and too little time to teaching people how to be better

learners" (p. 5). Because learning is such a covert process, a means to get within the learner to determine what he is really doing seems to be a vital need. Cohen's proposal is worthy of note; that is "using the learner as informant . . . may be profitable in future research" (p. 17). Hosenfeld (1976, p. 118) and Naiman et al. (1978, p. 100) agree with the above recommendation.

In a recent study by Naiman et al. (1978), interviews and questionnaires were used to determine what good learners did that poor students did not do. The purpose of the Naiman et al. study was threefold:

1. To test interviews as a research tool in the investigation.
2. To identify strategies and techniques developed and employed by good language learners.
3. To gather information about other factors which influence successful language learning. (p. 17)

This study began by using Stern's list of ten learning strategies as an initial frame of reference but altered them because of the investigation. According to their study, good language learners:

1. Actively involve themselves in the language learning task.
2. Develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system.

3. Develop and exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication (i.e. conveying and receiving messages) and interaction (i.e. behaving in a culturally appropriate manner).
4. Realize initially or with time that they must cope with the affective demands made upon them by language learning and succeed in doing so.
5. Constantly revise their L2 systems. They monitor the language they are acquiring by testing their inferences (guesses); by looking for needed adjustments as they learn new material or by asking native informants when they think corrections are needed. (pp. 13-15)

There are a few deficiencies, however, in the procedures employed in the study. First, a proficiency test or some other device to define a good- or poor-language learner was not utilized. Rather, the investigators relied on the learner's subjective judgement of his language proficiency. Second, the subjects were not selected in a systematic manner but were instead chosen because of their willingness and availability to participate in the research. Finally, interviews with the subjects were conducted after they had completed their foreign-language studies. It seems plausible that querying a learner as he or she is accomplishing a task might have been more informative and profitable. After all, can subjects possibly recall what they did with a learning task a few months earlier with any reliable accuracy?

In the latest publication, a review of literature referring to successful language learners, Omaggio (1978) identified the following seven learner strategies, which are very similar to those uncovered by Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975):

1. Successful language learners have insight into their own language learning styles and preferences as well as the nature of the task itself.
2. Successful learners take an active approach to the learning task.
3. The good language learner is willing to take risks.
4. Good language learners are good guessers.
5. Good language learners are prepared to attend to form as well as to content.
6. Successful learners actively attempt to develop the target language into a separate system and to try to think in the target language as soon as possible.
7. Good language learners generally have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.
(p. 2)

In summary, the preliminary findings of research on the strategies of successful language learners deal with the entirety of foreign language learning. The results were derived by the researchers' observing students and themselves, reading the relevant literature on the subject, and interviewing students in a manner that was not well described.

Research on Learner Strategies in Reading-Grammar and Reading Tasks

One of the pioneers in using ethnographic research in second-language learning and in discovering learner strategies with specific language learning tasks is Hosenfeld. She has also developed nine interviewing principles to elicit students' learning strategies. To this researcher's knowledge very few foreign-language educators or researchers have published any information on the subject of learner strategies concerning selected language learning tasks (Bialystok, 1981; Reiss, 1981). Nearly a decade ago, Hosenfeld (1975) issued a warning to the field of foreign-language education:

Foreign language teachers, materials developers, and researchers need to know what students are doing as they complete foreign language tasks. Considerable lack of congruence exists between what students are thought to be doing and what they actually are doing. We need to begin to understand that it is not the task itself but what the student does with the task that determines what is learned. (p. 163)

Thus, she views the learner as an active participant in the instructional process. In other words, learning is not a function of what the teacher does to the student but what the student does with the classroom activity. Because learning takes place within the learner, however, very

little is known about what the learner actually does. In order to determine what her students were doing with their grammar tasks, Hosenfeld began interviewing them as they went through each activity. Through her discussions with her students, she developed four principles for conducting interviews with them. Briefly, they were:

1. Distinguish between a retrospective and an introspective description of strategy.
2. Use indirect questions rather than direct questions--especially during the early stages of a conversation with a student.
3. Emphasize that correctness of the answer is not the prime concern but rather the steps students go through to arrive at the answer.
4. Follow the learner and go where he leads you. (pp. 156-157).

Until recently, foreign-language educators and researchers were not cognizant of the important role that students played in the learning-teaching process. Some foreign-language teachers were satisfied with preparing to teach, presenting the material to their students (oblivious to what students do while the material is being covered), and evaluating those same students by some measurement device. Many years ago, a word of warning was uttered by Bloom and Broder (1950) concerning the evaluation of learners based solely on their answers on a sheet of paper.

Attempts to infer the mental process from observations of overt behavior and data on the final product or solution are subject to error. It would appear possible for a variety of mental processes to lead to the same end product or solution. Unless the experimenter secures further and more direct evidence of the process involved, he cannot be certain about his inferences of process from product. (p. 5)

Concerned about instruction and with what students were doing while learning, Hosenfeld (1976) noted that:

What is striking is that we rarely examine descriptions of the teaching-learning process. Students perform tasks in the classroom; however, they are never asked systematically to describe in detail how they proceed in performing them. Teachers focus upon results (the products) but rarely upon the learning strategies (the process) that students use to arrive at the results. (pp. 117-118)

Hosenfeld (1976) suggested the adoption of the "think aloud" technique for use in foreign language research to discover the mental processes that learners employ in doing a task and to learn more about the second-language learning process (p. 118). The "think aloud" technique of asking students to reveal their thoughts as they accomplish a task was earlier put to use by Buswell and John (1926) with problems in learning arithmetic and by Bloom and Broder (1950) with verbal problem solving. These investigators all agree that this approach reveals information pertaining to a learner's mental process that cannot be collected by any

other means.

In her dissertation, Hosenfeld (1977a) elected to investigate students' learning strategies employed with reading-grammar tasks because she could observe what students were doing as they explained their strategies. In addition to the four interviewing principles she had employed in her 1975 study on grammar tasks, she found five more principles that assisted her in talking to students as they revealed their strategies:

1. Begin each interview with a practice session.
2. Distinguish between an incomplete and a complete description of a strategy.
3. Do not "teach" during the interview.
4. Determine the operations that underlie the particular terms a student uses to describe his strategies.
5. As well as obtaining strategy descriptions from information concerning the following factors:
 - a. The student's attitude toward the task.
 - b. His self-concept as a reader, a composer, etc.
 - c. His mini-theory of second language learning, its component assumptions and accompanying reasons, such as why he translates and why he ignores many words in reading-grammar tasks.
 - d. The effect of the learning tasks may have upon him. (pp. 54-60)

In all, she developed a total of nine interviewing principles to be used by teachers when talking to their students about individual learning strategies. In that thesis, one of her recommendations for further research was to "investigate the intellectual strategies of skillful/unskillful second-language readers, composers, listeners and speakers" (p. 124).

Hosenfeld (1977b) also published an article describing the reading strategies of second-language learners. Besides developing a way to identify a successful reader from a non-successful reader, she devised a system of symbols for analyzing the reading strategies employed by the two different groups of students. She uncovered nine strategies that distinguished the two groups of readers from each other. She discovered that, in general, the successful reader:

1. Keeps the meaning (context) of the passage in mind as he reads.
2. Reads (translates) in broad phrases.
3. Skips words that he views as unimportant to total phrase meaning.
4. Often skips unknown words and uses the remaining words in the sentence as clues to their meaning.
5. Looks up words in the back of the book only as a last resort.

6. Usually is successful in following through with a proposed solution to the problem.
7. After several unsuccessful attempts to decode a word, lets the word go.
8. Looks up words correctly in the glossary.
9. Has a positive self-concept as a reader. (p. 121)

In a recent article, Hosenfeld (1979b) focused her study on one learner and did an in-depth investigation of that learner's development of reading strategies. In three years, she has managed to obtain a list of 20 reading strategies which classroom teachers may find beneficial.

In summary, Hosenfeld has found it possible to discover the learning strategies of students as they accomplish reading-grammar and reading tasks.

Research on Learner Strategies in Listening

No information could be found in the foreign language literature concerning learner strategies in listening. In fact, only one foreign-language educator, Melvin (1978), has attempted any research in this area. Her report entitled "Learner Strategies in Listening" was presented at the 1978 ACTFL Conference in New York. Other than this one mention of the topic, however, there does not appear to be any recorded knowledge on the subject even though seven years

have elapsed since Hosenfeld (1977a) noted that "no information could be found in the literature describing what students do when they listen to or speak either their native language or a second language" (p. 26). Without a doubt, there seems to be a need for an exploratory study on the subject.

Summary

A review of the literature concerning listening comprehension and learner strategies reveals that many important questions remain unanswered. For example, what listening strategies are involved and who employs them. Preliminary investigations into other language skill areas have revealed that learning strategies do in fact exist. Yet, it remains unclear as to who uses them, how, when, and why. Furthermore, due to the preliminary nature of research into learning strategies, the definitions of good/successful and poor/unsuccessful learners are lacking as well as the procedures used in eliciting their learning strategies are inadequate. Thus, by addressing only one skill, listening comprehension, and using both the questionnaire and the "think aloud" technique during interviews, this inquiry intends to improve upon the inadequacies of past studies in order to determine the listening strategies of successful

and unsuccessful second-language learners.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF THE FIRST ETHNOGRAPHIC INTERVIEWS

Purpose

Today, in education, there appears to be room for both types of research: quantitative and qualitative. In the past, it seemed to be an either or situation, whereas currently the view is changing towards the notion that "there is good in both; why not use both if the situation calls for it" (Reichardt & Cook, 1979). Over 17 years ago, Glaser and Strauss (1967) had noted the importance of utilizing quantitative and qualitative research by saying, "both forms of data are necessary - not quantitative to test qualitative, but both used as supplements, as mutual verification and . . . as different forms of data on the same subject" (p. 18). And as Filstead (1979, p. 45) notes, "qualitative methods provide a basis for understanding the substantive significance of the statistical associations that are found." Ethnographic interviews may be able to provide some initial insight into what students are doing when attempting to comprehend speech.

Because ethnography is now considered to be a legitimate tool for research (Filstead, 1979; Rist, 1980), it will be used to ascertain not only the activities prior to, during, and after a listening comprehension exercise but also to determine the informer's feelings about such classroom activities. Wilson (1977, p. 253) points out that, "human behavior often has more meaning than observable facts." Ethnographic research emphasizes the importance of understanding human behavior, for as Wilson (p. 249) notes, "the social scientist cannot understand human behavior without understanding the framework within which the subjects interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions." Rist (1977) claims that:

It is from an interpretation of the world through the perspective of the subjects that reality, meaning, and behavior are analyzed. The canons and precepts of the scientific method are seen to be insufficient; what are needed are intersubjective understandings. (p. 44)

Ethnographic interviews seem to be a viable tool for the purpose of this investigation into the successful and unsuccessful listening strategies of beginning college Japanese students.

There is one thing that all ethnographers seem to agree upon: they prefer that theory emerge from the data; "that is, they wish the theory to be grounded" (Glaser & Strauss,

1967). This same notion is upheld by Guba, 1981; Spradley, 1979; Wilson, 1977). In other words, as Filstead (1979) notes:

By attempting to ground the theory, the researcher attempts to find out what explanation schemes are used by the subjects under study to make sense of the social realities they encounter; what theories, concepts and categories are suggested by the data itself. (p. 38)

According to Campbell (1974, p. 1), qualitative research can be called, "humanistic, humanistic, geisteswissenschaftlich, experiential, phenomenological, clinical, case study, field work, participant observations, process evaluation, and common sense knowing." Kounin (1977) preferred to use the term naturalistic research, because it is "characterized by systematic observation in a field setting, wherein phenomena are more apt to occur naturally, in order to develop hypotheses." Tikunoff and Ward (1980, p. 265), explain the development of theory in the natural sciences by saying that it is, "an outgrowth of years of observation by researchers of phenomena in their naturalistic setting." Thus, by observing how informants behave and listening to what they say they do in comprehending aural stimuli, an attempt will be made to ground the theory on a listening comprehension task.

Because ethnographic research utilizes the interviewer as an instrument of research, the interviewer must be as objective as possible. Although observer bias cannot be eliminated, it can be controlled. As Bogdan and Biklen (1982) note, "qualitative researchers try to acknowledge and take into account their own biases as a method of dealing with them" (p. 43). Wilson adds that, "the qualitative research enterprise depends on the ability of the researcher to make himself a sensitive research instrument by transcending his own perspective and becoming acquainted with the perspectives of those he is studying" (1977, p. 261). Hall (1980) summarizes the qualities of an ethnographer by saying that an ethnographer must:

Be able to tolerate ambiguity; be neat; be able to work responsibly on their own; be seen by others as trustworthy; be personally committed, self-disciplined, sensitive to themselves and to others, mature, and consistent; and be able to maintain confidentiality. (p. 353)

So, in the final analysis, interviewer bias in this study can be reduced but not entirely discounted. As Guba (1981), explains:

The naturalistic inquirer . . . is inclined to use himself as the instrument, willingly trading off some objectivity and reliability (in the rationalistic sense) in order to gain greater flexibility and the opportunity to build upon tacit knowledge (a feature that paper-and-pencil or physical instruments can never have). (p. 8)

Prior to and during the completion of this research, this investigator served as a supervisor, a counselor, an interviewer, and an advisor; all of which, enhance his qualifications for this study.

As a supervisor of a section involving 10 foreign-language instructors in four languages, it was necessary to work with people on a daily basis, providing direction and control, positive as well as negative feedback, in order to meet the department's objectives. Listening very carefully to what people were saying and obtaining opinions from various levels of management before making a decision were important lessons that were learned.

For three years, this investigator served as a How-to-Study Counselor for students who had great difficulty in not only adjusting to this academic and military environment but also in developing their non-existent study habits. It was necessary to listen, to ask questions, and sometimes to delve deeply into a student's personal life without alienating the person. Usually, three to five students were assigned each semester with each person taking about eight to ten weeks to complete the program. The primary purpose of a How-to-Study Counselor was to listen and to provide both advice and direction for the student.

As a supervisor for a foreign-language teaching section, many interviews were conducted both over the telephone and in person. Personal interviews were held in the Department of Foreign Languages at the United States Air Force Academy only after an applicant had passed the initial telephone interview which was used to determine his or her language qualification.

As the Chairman of the Alternate Fourth Class Committee at the Air Force Academy for three years, approximately 750 records of academically deficient students were reviewed with several hundred of these students being interviewed by a committee as well as individually. The purpose of this group of Air Force officers is not only to provide assistance to students having adjustment problems to the institution but also to prescribe disciplinary measures as well as recommendations for retention or dismissal based on the student's academic performance.

These are the qualifications of this investigator who served as an instrument for this ethnographic study: supervisor, counselor, interviewer, and advisor.

In 1981, Guba developed criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic research. He admits that this is but a, "primitive effort to answer the question of

criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries" (p. 1). For up till then, there was very little documentation on this topic of trustworthiness of the findings. This study uses Guba's criteria for determining the trustworthiness of the data in regards to internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity.

The naturalists seek to account for internal validity, termed credibility, by adopting certain procedures, "which, while not as theoretically unassailable, nevertheless preserve the wholistic situation" (Guba, 1981, pp. 19-20). Credibility is tested by member checks and triangulation. Based on initial data gathered, this investigator has discussed the preliminary findings with subjects in this study as well as with students in subsequent Japanese language classes. Several methods of data collection were used in this study to interpret the data: participant observation, ethnographic interviews, and a questionnaire.

According to Guba (1981), external validity or generalizability labeled transferability by naturalists is:

Itself dependent upon the degree of similarity (fittingness) between two contexts. The naturalist does not attempt to form generalizations that will hold in all times and in all places, but to form working hypotheses that may be transferred from one context to another depending upon the degree of 'fit' between the contexts. (p. 13)

To determine the extent to which transferability is possible, the naturalist relies on thick descriptive data. As Tikunoff and Ward (1980) note, the context of the study must be explained in detail: the class, the school, the teachers, the students, et cetera. In other words, the study's setting, informants, procedures, et cetera must be described in detail. The naturalist leaves the question of generalizability to the consumer of the research as to whether the findings are relevant to his or her situation.

As for reliability or consistency of the data, the naturalists have labeled this as dependability. According to Hinman (1980), reliability can be improved by, "repeating the same question with the same informant, in different phrasing and during different interviews, responses can be cross-checked. This study used three sets of questions (retrospection, contemplation, and experiential) to increase its reliability. In fact, the contemplative portion of the interviews indicated that the informants were using the same listening strategies that they initially described in the retrospective portion of the study. Nonverbal behavior may also yield clues" (pp. 11-12). According to Guba (1981):

The naturalist, believing in a multiple reality and using humans-as-instruments which change not only because of 'error' (e.g., fatigue) but because of evolving insights and sensitivities, must entertain the possibility that some portion of observed instability is 'real.' Thus, for the naturalist, the concept of consistency implies not invariance (except by chance) but trackable variance--variance which can be ascribed to sources: so much for error, so much for reality shifts, so much for increased instrumental proficiency (better insights) and so on. The naturalist interprets consistency as dependability, a concept that embraces elements both of the stability implied by the rationalistic [quantitative] term reliable and of the trackability required by explainable changes in instrumentation. (pp. 13-14)

The naturalist seeks to improve dependability by leaving an audit trail. For this investigation, an external auditor may review the ethnographic interviews in Appendix B as well as the cassette tapes of the interviews.

Objectivity or what the naturalist terms confirmability is taken into account by triangulation and practicing reflexivity, that is, to describe how and why the questions in this study were formulated and why the data is presented as such in this research. One important technique in support of practicing reflexivity is to keep accurate records of observations and interviews (see Appendix B). According to Guba (1981, p. 15), by following the reasoning of Scriven (1972), "the naturalist shifts the burden of neutrality from the investigator of the data, requiring

evidence not of the certifiability of the investigator or his methods but of the confirmability of the data produced." Wilson (1977), writing on objectivity, says that, "well-executed ethnographic research uses a technique of disciplined subjectivity that is as thorough and intrinsically objective as are other kinds of research" (p. 258). Rather than seeing the ethnographic researcher as a biased observer, Wilson perceives that person as:

One who must learn to systematically empathize with the participants. He must synthesize the various experiences of participants to comprehend the subtleties of their actions, thoughts, and feelings. Sometimes he uses his own reactions, which has has cultivated by undergoing the same experiences as participants, to understand the reactions of those he is studying. (p. 258)

The purpose of this study was to determine the listening strategies of successful and unsuccessful learners in a beginning college Japanese course. Prior to eliciting students' listening strategies, however, a study was first needed to ascertain whether or not a college-level, foreign-language learner could describe his listening strategies. Along with determining the listening strategies of learners, an interview procedure had to be developed to evoke what students do in their attempt to make sense of what they hear.

The objectives of the first study at The Ohio State University (OSU) in Columbus, Ohio, were twofold: to develop an interview procedure to elicit student listening strategies and to determine whether or not foreign-language learners could describe their listening strategies on a listening comprehension task. Hosenfeld (1979b) had initiated a study for learner strategies dealing with reading-grammar and reading tasks. She came up with a list of nine interviewing principles that were applied in this study to evoke the strategies of students in dealing with another foreign-language skill, listening comprehension.

The Japanese-language students at OSU were selected because of investigator interest in this particular group of language learners and their close proximity. Because very few colleges and universities in the United States offer Japanese in their language programs, the availability of students at OSU presented an excellent opportunity for this research.

The ethnographic researcher must be cognizant of his entry into a setting, in this case, a foreign-language classroom. The ethnographer is, according to Wilson (1977), "sensitive to the way he enters a setting and carefully establishes a role that facilitates the collection of information" (p. 254). This investigator got involved in

the setting by attending classes, gaining the confidence and trust of the future participants, and most important, asking the students ahead of time for their cooperation in the upcoming research.

Initial contact with the Department of East Asian Languages was made during the second week of January during the Winter Quarter of 1980. Immediate permission was received to observe the instruction in the Beginning Japanese languages classes from both the Chairman of the Department of East Asian Languages and the Language Coordinator for the Elementary Modern Japanese course. For a period of approximately two weeks this investigator carefully observed classroom activities.

It was discovered, however, that the only type of listening comprehension task utilized in the class was the question-and-answer variety. The instructor asked a question which was answered by a student. The next student would be given the same question or a different one and so on. There were no other forms of listening comprehension exercises. Therefore, in order to begin dealing with the first prerequisite of whether or not a learner (college-level) could relate his listening strategies on a listening comprehension task, listening exercises similar to the proposed study had to be introduced into the classroom

activities.

With the concurrence of the Language Coordinator for the Elementary Modern Japanese course, listening comprehension tasks, namely, narrations were introduced into the curriculum, both in class as listening comprehension exercises and as part of the end-of-lesson tests as well on the mid-term examination. Narrations were played in class on a cassette tape recorder to familiarize the students with this language learning task.

Initially, the narrations were of 20 to 30 second duration, played twice, and followed by questions in English. Narrations were introduced once, sometimes twice, for the following four weeks. Next, a narration was followed by students writing an English summary of what they heard. Finally, a narration was played and accompanied by a multiple-choice examination in Japanese where the questions and answers were read twice each on tape.

The two primary objectives of incorporating listening comprehension activities into the classroom were: to present the student with the kind of listening comprehension task used in the investigation and to provide the students with more opportunities to develop their listening skill in the Japanese language.

Subjects

This study was conducted at OSU during the latter part (March 7 to March 14) of the Winter Quarter of 1980. The 14 students enrolled in the Elementary Modern Japanese course were asked to participate in this investigation. All students agreed to do so and signed the human subjects approval form (see Appendix A). Due to an unforeseen circumstance, however, one subject could not be interviewed. Thus, 13 of the 14 students were interviewed during a one-week period.

The 14 subjects had a wide range of backgrounds. There were two graduate students, four seniors, one junior, five sophomores, and two people who were continuing education students. They ranged in age from 19 to 49 years of age with many people being in their twenties. This group included four foreign students--two each from South Korea and Taiwan. Over half of the subjects were studying Japanese because of their majors in international business or economics. A few students chose Japanese because they thought it would be interesting; a couple of students wanted to learn how to speak it, while one person selected it out of curiosity. The 14 subjects were divided into two, Japanese 102 sections, which met for 10 weeks. The day class met five days a week from 1:00-1:48 p.m. whereas the

night class met three days a week from 7:30-9:00 p.m. These two classes were taught by different instructors.

Interview Facilities

The setting for the interviews during this study was based on whether students attended day or night classes. For students who attended classes during the day, the investigator arranged to use an office in close proximity to the class. Although a foreign language laboratory is located on campus (in the foreign-language building), very few students made use of the facility. Rather than using a location that subjects were not accustomed to utilizing, a room in the more familiar surroundings near their language classroom was used.

For the students who attended the night class and who were otherwise not on campus during daylight hours, the investigator arranged to meet them at a time and place convenient to them (which was either the above mentioned interview site or any room near their Japanese language class). The interview setting was usually quiet and each subject was made to feel as comfortable as possible, considering the circumstances.

Instrumentation--Listening Passages

As mentioned previously, the only type of listening comprehension activity in the classroom was the question-and-answer drill. Listening passages, similar to those found in standardized tests were not used. Consequently, listening passages for the study had to be developed before subjects' listening strategies could be solicited and evaluated.

Passages/narratives were written based on this researcher's review of the literature on listening comprehension testing. Carroll (1972) noted that "one finds on nearly all standardized . . . listening comprehension tests the device of presenting a paragraph to . . . listen to . . . (p. 19). Not only is a paragraph found on standardized examinations for listening comprehension but also in foreign-language classrooms as listening comprehension exercises or measurement devices. In addition, Clark (1972) added that ". . . a 'passage' may be defined as one or more utterances in the foreign language - of any style or length and by one or more speakers . . . (p.60) .

Several recommendations that are pedagogical reasons for writing listening comprehension exercises were incorporated

into the development of the listening passages. Finocchiaro (1974) suggested that "the paragraph chosen for this activity (listening comprehension) should be short and, if possible, should constitute a complete idea . . ." (p. 93). Foreign-language educators and test developers (Rivers, 1968, p. 148; Grittner, 1969, p. 245; Disick, 1975, p.173; and Clark, 1972, p. 62) agree that the level of difficulty in terms of lexical items and structures should be similar to but not identical to the original materials that the students have previously been exposed. Thus, passages/narratives were produced that met the guidelines recommended for listening comprehension exercises/tests by leaders in the field of foreign-language education and testing.

The listening passages were written based on the content, lexis, and grammar introduced in the textbook, The Fundamentals of Japanese (Lessons 1-10) by Uehara and Kiyose, utilized in the Japanese 101-102 course at OSU. The three listening passages were written by the researcher in collaboration with the Language Coordinator for the Elementary Modern Japanese course. These passages were

validated by a jury of four college Japanese-language specialists at OSU based on authenticity of the language, level of difficulty, and appropriateness for listening comprehension. The jury of Japanese specialists included Professor Miles McElrath, Chairman of the Department of East Asian Languages, Professor James Morita, an expert in Japanese language and literature, Mr. Katsuhiko Momoi, a native of Japan and Language Coordinator for the Elementary Modern Japanese course, and Mr. John Gillespie, an instructor of Japanese.

Once the three passages were validated, they were recorded at Dieter Cunz Hall, one of two recording studios operated by the Office of Learning Resources at OSU. A Recording Technician was present during the recording session to provide assistance and advice as well as to ensure the quality of the recordings. The directions for the listening comprehension passages were read in English by the investigator while the passages were read at normal classroom speed by a native speaker of Japanese who is a Teaching Associate in the Department of East Asian Languages. In recording the tapes in the recording studio,

a Neuman microphone feeder, Model M50C, and an Altec audio console, Model 250 T3, were utilized. Once the microphone was positioned for optimum recording, the recording technician amplified and adjusted the signal (recording), then fed it into the Telex cassette recorder. The three passages were separately recorded on Scotch C-20 low noise, high density cassette tapes.

After listening to and verifying the three cassette tapes, they were then duplicated at the Listening Center at Denny Hall. The Recording Technician utilized a Pentagon Pro-series Duplicating System for the copying process. The original tapes were then set aside as master tapes for future use, if necessary, while the duplicated tapes were used in the study.

The Interview Principles

The interviews employed the "think aloud" technique adapted for foreign languages by Hosenfeld (1979a) who investigated student learning strategies for reading-grammar and reading tasks. Hosenfeld was instrumental in adjusting and further developing the original procedures utilized by Buswell and John (1926) and Bloom and Broder (1950). Hosenfeld (1979b) identified nine principles for use in evoking self-report data from students. This investigation used those principles which are as follows:

1. Begin each interview with a practice session.
2. Distinguish between an incomplete and a complete description of a study.
3. There are two types of self-report: introspection and retrospection.
4. Ask indirect rather than direct questions.
5. Emphasize that the prime concern is not the correctness of the answer (or reading response) but rather the steps students go through to arrive at the answer (or meaning of a sentence).
6. Do not 'teach' during the interview.
7. Determine the operations that underlie the particular terms students use to describe strategies.
8. As well as obtaining strategy descriptions from students, try to elicit information concerning the following factors:

- a. The student's attitude toward the task.
 - b. The student's self-concept as a reader, a composer, etc.
 - c. The student's 'mini-theory' of second language learning, its component assumptions and accompanying reasons, such as why a translating approach is used and why many words are ignored in reading-grammar tasks.
 - d. The effect of the learning task may have upon the student.
9. Follow the learner and go where he or she leads you (pp. 69-71).

Knowing the above nine principles, however, does not mean that one is automatically a skilled interviewer who can conduct a high-quality interview. This investigator used his previous experience as a supervisor, academic counselor, interviewer of prospective foreign-language instructors, and advisor to conduct the first study. The main objective of this first study was to increase and hone the skills of the investigator who was to serve as one of the main instruments in this ethnographic research. According to Gay (1976):

Feedback from a small pilot study can be used to revise questions in the guide which are apparently unclear, do not solicit the desired information, or produce negative reactions in subjects. Insights into better ways to handle certain questions can also be acquired. (p. 135)

Therefore, the first study was used to ascertain if a foreign-language learner could describe his or her listening

strategies as well as to develop, refine, and sharpen interviewer skills to include the development of an inventory of questions, line of questioning, and depth of questioning for the second study.

Interview Materials, Format, and Procedures

Individual interviews were scheduled at one hour intervals to allow the investigator sufficient time to prepare for each interview, to conduct it, and to get ready for the subsequent subject. The following materials and equipment were used (see Appendix A for items 1, 2, 3 and 6):

1. A one-page written statement explaining the purpose of the study and instructions for the investigation.
2. A Background Information sheet to gather pertinent background data on each subject.
3. One copy of the practice exercise to determine the subject's ability to 'think aloud'.
4. An empty cassette tape box and three pieces of of folded paper marked 1, 2 or 3.
5. A pencil and a sheet of paper for each student to take notes (if they so desired) and to write their English summary of the passage.
6. One copy each of the three passages in Japanese for each subject denoting which passages s/he heard.
7. One blank 60-minute cassette tape per student.
8. One (master) cassette tape of each of the three listening passages (plus a copy, if necessary).

9. One cassette recorder for broadcasting the passages.
10. One Panasonic cassette tape recorder, Model RQ-409S for taping the interviews.
11. One copy of the interview questions.

This investigator recorded subjects' responses with a cassette tape recorder. A recording device aids the interview process because the interviewer does not have to slow down and record responses while the subject is speaking. Instead, the interviewer can concentrate on what the subject is saying. In addition, the responses are recorded exactly as given. Thus, recording responses is more efficient and objective than taking notes during the interview. It also establishes an audit trail.

The following interview format was used during the investigation. The left-hand column lists the various activities and the right-hand column indicates the approximate time spent on each portion of the interview.

AD-A143 247

A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY INTO THE SUCCESSFUL AND
UNSUCCESSFUL LISTENING STRA. (U) AIR FORCE INST OF TECH
WRIGHT-PATTERSON AFB OH J N FUJITA 1984

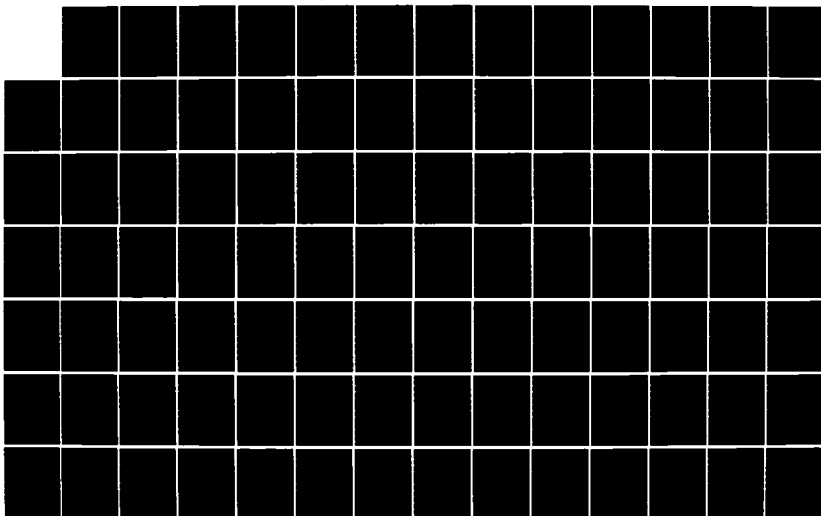
2/4

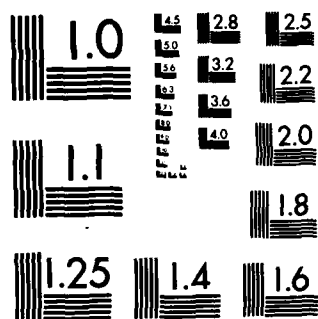
UNCLASSIFIED

AFIT/CI/NR-84-21D

F/G 5/10

NL





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

Interview Format

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Time</u>
1. Greetings and Purpose of the Study	2
2. Background Information	2
3. Practice Session	2
4. Selection and Playing of the Tape	2
5. Written Summary	5-7
6. Retrospection	10
7. Contemplation	10
Total:	<hr/> 33-35

Each subject was warmly greeted and thanked for his or her willingness to participate in the investigation. After the subject was seated and made to feel as comfortable as possible, he or she was provided with an oral statement of the purpose of the study. The investigator emphasized three main points. First, that their foreign-language grade would not be affected by their performance or comments during the study; all statements would be kept confidential. Second, it was stressed that what was important in this study was his or her thought processes in comprehending the listening comprehension passage and not how they performed on it. Third, the subjects were told that the listening exercise would provide them with an additional opportunity to

practice and develop their listening comprehension skill. After explaining the objective of the study and what kind of information was being asked for, the investigator proceeded to gather background information on the subject.

The Background Information sheet (see Appendix A) was utilized in order to establish rapport with the subject and to gather personal data. The following information was collected:

1. Biographical data.
2. Prior foreign language study.
3. Prior foreign language exposure.
4. Reason(s) for studying Japanese.
5. Subject's self-concept as a foreign-language learner and skill in listening comprehension.

The investigator completed the Background Information sheet based on each subject's oral responses. A copy of the Background Information sheet was placed before the subject for reference. In this manner, the data on the subjects was kept as uniform as possible without having different replies due to confusion or misinterpretation of the requested information. When necessary, student responses were clarified to ensure that both the student and investigator were speaking about the same idea or topic. This brief question-and-answer period established the kind of atmosphere needed for the investigation. Prior to

discovering student listening strategies, however, a brief training period was necessary to determine if students could describe their overt and covert processes on a listening comprehension task.

The practice session on the "think-aloud" technique involved the subject listening to a three-sentence paragraph in Japanese (see Appendix A) read by the investigator, after which, the subject described his mental activities in order to comprehend the passage. Once the investigator ascertained that the subject was familiar with the "think-aloud" technique and able to describe his or her activities, the study proceeded.

Each student randomly selected one of the three available taped passages by choosing a piece of folded paper, each containing a number written on it (e.g., 1, 2, or 3). The numbers on the pieces of paper corresponded to one of three narrations. Consequently, if the subject picked the piece of paper with the number 2 written on it, he or she heard the cassette tape passage labeled number 2. By providing more than one listening comprehension passage, the subjects were given an opportunity to listen to tapes of varied difficulty levels containing different content, vocabulary, and grammar that they had covered in the Japanese courses, thereby increasing the validity of the

study. If only one passage had been used, the content, vocabulary, and grammar, not to mention the difficulty level, in that tape might have been unsuitable for a few of the subjects. Once the subject had selected the narration he or she was to hear, the data gathering began.

The first part of the "think-aloud" process required the subject to listen to a narration in Japanese and to write a written summary of it in English. Instructions for the listening comprehension task preceded the passage (see Appendix A). The prerecorded narration that the subject had chosen was played on a Wollensak cassette tape recorder. After the passage was played twice, the subject was given five to seven minutes to write in English as complete a summary as possible of the tape-recorded passage. The time for a subject to write a summary was determined by observing his or her actions. Subjects from foreign countries required more time since they had to gather their thoughts and put them on paper, to include correct grammar. Since listening comprehension is defined in this study as attaching meaning to spoken speech it seems reasonable to assume that an English summary would reveal what a person understood. The purpose of the written summary was threefold:

1. To determine the listening comprehension score of each subject by the correct number of 'propositions' or 'idea units' in the passage (Bransford and Johnson, 1972, p. 720),
2. To observe what the subject did in order to write the summary; i.e., take notes, and
3. To use the written summary along with the narration as a means of determining the listening strategy of each subject.

The written summaries were later scored by the Language Coordinator for the Elementary Modern Japanese course. In general, the scores for the subjects did not fluctuate from their previous listening comprehension tests. Hereafter, the ethnographic term informant will be used to mean subject.

After the informant completed the written summary, the investigator turned on the second cassette tape recorder containing the blank cartridge (labeled with subject's SSAN) and began eliciting information. Two sets of questions were developed by the investigator: retrospection and introspection. The retrospective questions were written to determine what the informant had done to accomplish the listening comprehension task, whereas the introspective questions were designed to ascertain what the informant is doing as he or she listens to the passage, sentence by sentence. Both sets of questions were developed by reviewing the literature on the listening comprehension

process, research on native language listening comprehension, research on listening comprehension in the second language, research on the good-language learners and their strategies, research on learner strategies in reading-grammar and reading tasks, and observing students during listening comprehension exercises in foreign-language classrooms. Initially, a retrospective look, a summary of the strategy used to accomplish the task, was determined. The following questions were employed:

1. What do you do when you listen?
2. Is that what you normally do when you listen to a passage?
3. What goes through your mind as you listen to the passage?
4. What were you thinking about as you heard the passage the first time; the second time?
5. Do you translate (each sentence)?
6. Why do you translate?
7. When do you not translate?
8. How do you feel about the passage (i.e., like, dislike, easy, difficult, etc.,)? Why?
9. What portions of the passage (beginning, middle, or end) were difficult if any; can you explain why?
10. What made the other portions understandable or less difficult?
11. What made the understandable portions make sense?

12. Do you change difficult (complex) sentences into easier (more simple) sentences?
13. How do you remember a passage (i.e., by words, phrases, or sentences)?
14. How much of the vocabulary used in the passage did you recognize? How important is it?
15. How about the grammar in the passage? How much attention did you pay to it?
16. Do you have a certain method that you use to listen to these passages? If so, can you explain it? How long have you been using it?
17. How well do you normally do on listening exercises (e.g., good, average, poor)? Can you explain why?
18. Do you find yourself thinking about other things while listening to a passage? What are you thinking about?
19. Do you often find yourself being baffled by words you do not know? What do you do when you hear them?
20. Are there any other ways you can think of that would better indicate your ability to listen and understand a foreign language?
21. What do you normally do in class when your classmates are speaking to the instructor or to other students?
22. Do you consider yourself to be a good listener on a foreign language listening task? Why?
23. Can you think of things that you can do outside of class to improve your listening ability?

Once the retrospective aspect of the investigation was completed, an introspective view or a determination of the informants' mental process as he or she actually goes through the task was made.

Introspection was determined by rewinding the master tape to the beginning of the passage and replaying it again for the third time. Consequently, two cassette tape recorders were now in operation. Instead of permitting the master tape to continue on through the passage, however, it was stopped after the end of each sentence in order to elicit the learner's listening strategy. The tape recorder with the blank cassette was left on to gather verbal protocols from the interview.

It was determined, however, that listening to a passage for the third time was not defensible since passages are normally played twice and perhaps once, but not three times. So, in order to be consistent with what is normally done in foreign-language classrooms, a change was made. Thus, beginning with the ninth subject, another passage was used to elicit a informant's listening strategies during introspection. This procedure was then adopted for the remaining five informants as well as for the second study.

It was at this point that the researcher asked questions and tried to probe for underlying reasons for the various overt and covert actions in accomplishing the listening task. The informant's notes (if available) and summary were used to determine what the informant was doing in order to understand the passage. The following questions were used

to evoke the listening strategies of the learner during introspection:

1. Can you tell me what went through your mind as you heard the sentence?
2. Can you tell me which words you recognized or focused on in the sentence? What do they mean in English? Any other words that caught your attention?
3. Do you translate the words you recognize into English? Why?
4. Briefly in your own words (English), tell me what the sentence is all about.
5. How about these vocabulary words? Mention those that the students did not recognize or had recognize or had difficulty in recognizing, i.e., heard them before but does not know what they mean.
6. What do you think this word means? Determine if the subject is willing to guess at a word through context.
7. How do you feel about words that you do not recognize? What happens to them?
8. Do you attempt to understand every word in a sentence. Why or why not?
9. How do you determine if a sentence is describing something that went on in the past, is happening now, or will occur in the future?

The following excerpts of the recorded interviews indicate various listening strategies and attitudes towards the listening comprehension task by the informants in this study.

Interview Excerpt #1

Interviewer: Bart, what do you do when you listen to a listening comprehension exercise in the foreign-language classroom?

Bart: I try to write down as much as I can because I don't trust my memory to be able to recall everything. The notes I take, no one but myself can understand them. I just write the first three or four letters of a word and for the verb endings, if it's like past tense, I try to make a little notation of its tense. I'll do it that way.

Interviewer: How do you make that notation?

Bart: Well, if it's like masu, I'll put the verb and put like ms. If it's past tense, I'll be able to tell because I'll put like parts of it like shta so I know it's deshita or mashita, so I know that that's past. Or sometimes I don't have to do that if it's obviously past tense because there was another word in the phrase that would tip me off.

Interviewer: Do you have a way, your way of listening to passages in the classroom that you are comfortable with?

Bart: Really, I'm not really comfortable with the way I do it. All I try to do is, I try to really concentrate hard. I don't want to miss anything at all. It's better when there's no distraction, like if someone comes into the room sometimes while the tape is being played that can really deter me, because then I'm almost certain to miss a couple of words and I'll have to admit that that a couple of times I've panicked and I've missed one or two sentences in a row and it just gets me.

Interviewer: When you heard the passage the first time, what were you thinking about? What about the second time?

- Bart: The first time, I wanted to organize everything. I wanted to at least have a couple of words from every sentence so even if I didn't understand the meaning, at least I'd be prepared to fill in what I'd missed when it goes back the second time. That's how I take notes. I take the notes in rows. A couple of words for each sentence.
- Interviewer: I notice you took notes, that looks like roomaji.
- Bart: That's rainen, that's Tokyo, and that's sotsugyoo suru and I think that was kyonen, I couldn't tell. I listened hard for that, it sounded like yonen, but . . .
- Note: Three ellipsis points used during the interviews (first and second study) do not indicate omitted material but pauses in the informant's speech.
- Interviewer: Do you ever translate here into English at all or on a piece of paper or does that come in your summary?
- Bart: That comes in the summary. I find that it's easier to just write down in Japanese than to write it down in English, to stop and think, hey wait a minute, that's what this means in English. I just as soon write it down in Japanese and then translate it into English.
- Interviewer: That's how you do it, right? Are you comfortable with that?
- Bart: Yes.
- Interviewer: How did you feel about the listening exercise you just did?
- Bart: Well, in comparison to the other ones we did during this quarter, I'd say it ranked in the middle as far as difficulty goes. We've had easier ones and we've also had more difficult ones.

Interviewer: In terms of an overall passage like this which has eight or nine sentences, did you feel comfortable with the whole thing or were there certain parts of the passage that gave you problems?

Bart: In this one, I missed, I'm sure the third sentence I know I missed. I missed it twice. I missed it the first time, and the second time, I tried to listen for it. I missed it again. I think it was because it seemed to be an abnormally short sentence. And, I was still, like filling in the second sentence when the third one came pass just like that and I missed that one. It would seem maybe that long sentences would be more difficult but really they're not because then you get the general feeling for the whole thing because there are more words and most of these patterns we already know and a lot of the sentences we've seen many times before, so even if I miss part of it, I can usually get the general gist of it.

Interviewer: How do you recall what went on in a passage?

Bart: You mean other than taking notes?

Interviewer: Yes.

Bart: Really, I don't. I am concentrating so hard on hearing the tape that I really don't try to put any effort into remembering anything other than what I write down.

Interviewer: Did you recognize a lot of the vocabulary in the passage?

Bart: I don't think there's any specific word in this passage that I didn't know. Usually vocabulary is not my big problem.

Interviewer: Can you tell me what is?

Bart: The speed that it goes at. If I can hear the sentences a lot slower, I'd probably get them all.

Interviewer: What about grammar in the passage? We've talked about that a little bit before. How do you handle that?

Bart: That's not a great problem. My worse problem is being able to get it all. The grammar seems to fall in place. You can just tell. Usually it always starts with, my name is such and such. And then, they start to tell about each other and usually as far as the tense and verbs go, it's not too hard to figure out because you can see the way that the passage is going. I get a few wrong sometimes. I'll have present tense when it's it's supposed to be past but in general, that's not my main problem at all.

Bart's listening strategy involved taking written notes of whatever he comprehends. Because he is so concerned with notes, however, the tape appears even faster than it normally would if he were simply listening. He tries to determine when an action took place by listening to the verb endings to see if it happened in the past, is going on now, or will occur in the future. If, however, he comprehends a time word in the sentence (i.e., last week), he does not attend as carefully to the verb endings.

Perhaps this is a suggestion to foreign-language teachers that we should train our beginning students to listen for tenses. We, however, should not combine various tenses in one passage, especially during the early part of language learning. Instead, we could use the past tense in a passage, the gerund in another, and so on. It seems that

we may be asking too much of a beginning student, that is, to attend to meaning and ascertain when things occur by listening for the verb tense.

Bart does not appear to be comfortable with his listening strategy because he says, "really, I'm not really comfortable with the way I do it." He likes to hear the entire passage and to not miss any part of it. If he does, he gets flustered. Consequently, he could get discouraged and eventually lose interest in the language. Perhaps if he knew what others did to understand a passage, he might even try their listening strategies. Perhaps, we should allow students opportunities to discuss and exchange their listening strategies and to experiment without penalty.

Interview Excerpt #2

Interviewer: Karen, I'd like to ask you some general questions about what you did when you listened to this listening exercise. What did you do to understand this passage.

Karen: The first time it was played I tried to listen to the general idea of the sentences and the second time it was played through, I tried to pick up details.

Interviewer: When you say you tried to pick up the general ideas the first time around, what kinds of things are you looking for?

Karen: Things like verbs and names.

Interviewer: Anything else?

- Karen: Not really . . . just getting an idea of the time involved.
- Interviewer: What about the second time around? What are you doing then?
- Karen: I'm looking for details for as to when they they are doing something, who they are doing it with, combining the sentences, putting putting it together.
- Interviewer: Is that what you normally do in the classroom, sit and listen through the two playings?
- Karen: Yes.
- Interviewer: I notice that you don't take any notes.
- Karen: When I first started doing it, I tried taking notes, but I found that by trying to concentrate on writing notes that I would lose more of the conversation.
- Interviewer: When did you stop taking notes?
- Karen: About a couple of weeks ago I guess.
- Interviewer: When you started using this way of just listening, have you done better?
- Karen: Yeah, I think so.
- Interviewer: When you hear the passage the first or second time, do you attempt to understand every word?
- Karen: No, I think I mostly try to understand specific words, more than every word. I wouldn't try as hard to remember particles say as a noun.
- Interviewer: Can you tell me what a particle is? Give me an example.
- Karen: Like wa.
- Interviewer: What do you do with the words that you do recognize in a sentence?

Karen: I try and take the order in which they are in the Japanese sentence and I translate it into English and figure out what the English order would be so that I can write down the sentence.

Interviewer: What about some words that perhaps you do not recognize?

Karen: In the first reading, if I don't recognize the word, I'll just let it go by and if I still don't recognize it after the second reading, I'll try and get the meaning of it from the rest of the sentence.

Karen uses a different approach from Bart. Although Bart is uncomfortable with his listening strategy, it seems as if he has not tried something else. On the other hand, Karen has changed her listening strategy. She now simply listens and no longer takes notes, which apparently was not effective or efficient. Although a blank sheet of paper was provided she did not take any notes. In order to comprehend the passage, she first attempts to get the general idea of the passage, the overall theme; then, she tries to fill in the details. She says she focuses on the verbs and names (nouns!) to determine who is doing what, to whom, and when. It does not appear that she needs the verb tense as much as Bart. Karen is more interested in the who, what, where, when, why and how kinds of information.

Interview Excerpt #3

Interviewer: Sandy, what do you do when you listen to a listening exercise.

Sandy: If it's read twice, I usually try to get the idea and mainly listen. I still take notes and try to get the general gist of it first time through.

Interviewer: What do you do the second time?

Sandy: The second time I take notes. I try and fix my notes and make them a little more complete so that I know exactly what was in the content.

Interviewer: When you listen to the tape the second time, are you listening to parts you understood the first time?

Sandy: I am more waiting for the parts that I missed the first time through. I check myself on what I heard the first time and make sure I heard that correctly but I am more waiting for what I missed the first time through. You pretty much know where the holes are, the sentence that you didn't hear.

Interviewer: How do you know that?

Sandy: Like I know what I understood the first time through. For example on the first tape that I just heard, the woman explained that she was a student a Tokyo University, then she said something quickly about studying English and I knew she said something, but I wasn't sure exactly what she said. I knew that it came right after the part that I understood. So, I checked myself and then listened for that part of the sentence.

Sandy's strategy is somewhat similar to Karen in that she tries to get the gist of the passage the first time. The second time, however, she takes notes and tries to

listen for portions that she missed the first time--she knows pretty much what she needs to listen for. Perhaps, Sandy could do just as well, if not better, if she listened twice without taking any notes at all. But unless she is given the opportunity to try out a new strategy, without a grade penalty, she will most likely stay with her current strategy.

Interview Excerpt #4

Interviewer: Can you tell me what you were thinking about or what you did when you heard the tape played the first time?

Phil: I wanted to take notes, brief but accurate. I got caught up in that and the notes came up sloppily and I would fall behind a sentence and I would just say "regroup" and start listening again so it would be like spurts of listening and falling out of place and just jumping back in again. Sometimes even the notes are incomplete.

Interviewer: What do you do when you hear the tape the second time?

Phil: I try to fill in the spaces. And confirm what I heard with my notes. Sometimes they are sloppy so I cross check.

Interviewer: You mean confirm what you heard the first time?

Phil: Confirm what I've taken down in the notes and filling in the spaces from when I lapse behind.

Interviewer: When you write your summary in English, do you rely totally on your notes? How do you write your summary?

Phil: I rely on my notes and sometimes a little ad libbing to fill in the blanks.

Interviewer: How do you ad lib? What do you do?

Phil: I try to consider the situation as generally commonplace, nothing extravagant is happening so if I hear they've eaten something, I assume that they've eaten in a restaurant. Things like that.

Phil's listening strategy involves note taking and some guessing. He seems overly concerned with note-taking. He takes them during the first playing as well as the second playing of the tape. He claims that he monitors what he heard the first time by checking it against his notes. When it comes time to write an English summary, he is not afraid to "ad lib" based on what he has comprehended.

Interview Excerpt #5

Interviewer: How long have you been listening to tapes like this in class?

Al: You mean the way I'm doing this now? I'd say about the fifth week into the second quarter, I started doing it the way I do now.

Interviewer: Is that how you started?

Al: No. When, I started, I tried taking all kinds of notes and I got confused and lost.

Interviewer: What made you go to this method?

Al: I figured that I had to trust myself. And I figured that this way, I could trust my memory more than having to write something down. I try to go with the flow of the passage instead of taking all the minute details.

Interviewer: Are you doing better?

Al: Yes, I am.

Al has changed his listening strategy since the beginning of the course. At first, he tried to take a lot of notes, but often got lost and confused. Now, he appears to stress listening as opposed to taking notes. It makes sense, for one can comprehend faster than trying to comprehend and take notes at the same time, especially in a foreign language. As he mentioned, "I need to trust my memory."

From the foregoing interview excerpts of beginning Japanese-language students, it is obvious that learner's exercise different approaches (strategies) in order to complete the listening comprehension task. They appear to be doing many different things to accomplish the listening comprehension task. One student may take notes while another may not. Another student needs to understand every word while another does not have to do that. Still, another student seems to have a plan of listening and trying to get at the meaning of words that are not readily understood.

While another student may have no idea of a plan at all. Some students translate and others do not. The skills and exercises necessary for the development of listening comprehension proficiency are unknown. About all one can say is that this student's listening proficiency is better than that student's listening proficiency. There is very little information available on what a good listener is doing that a poor listener is not doing.

In the Japanese class, it was assumed that listening proficiency was being developed by having listening comprehension exercises in class. Perhaps it was and perhaps it was not. Every week, one or two passages were played and students received scores for the end task. The teacher knew what a student received on a listening exercise but had no idea of what the student was doing in order to accomplish the task.

Student note-taking, for example, may provide some very superficial clues, but it still does not tell you why a student takes or does not take notes or what he does with the notes that he has taken. More importantly, students are able to provide more information about a passage than the notes would seem to indicate. What a student does with what he hears and how he attempts to make sense of it cannot be gleaned by mere observation of written notes. Students were

able to talk about what they do in order to comprehend passages in the foreign-language classroom.

Based on the interviews with college-level students using the "think-aloud" procedure and their ability to describe what they do in order to comprehend a passage, Hypothesis 1 is accepted: college-level students can identify and describe the listening strategies they employ on a listening comprehension task in the foreign-language classroom. Informants described their strategies, of taking notes, listening, or using a combination of listening and taking notes. They explained what they do during the first and second playing of the tape, what they listen for, what they do with words, phrases, or sentences that they do not comprehend, when and why they translate, and how they feel about listening comprehension exercises. Not a single student said that he or she could not do so or did not want to participate in this study.

The interviews in the first study made this investigator aware that foreign students required additional time to complete the written summary in English. All (four) of the foreign students took notes, most of which was in their native language (Korean or Chinese). The notes were then utilized to construct a summary in the foreign student's native tongue and then translated into an English summary.

Time again is of importance for foreign students because they need more time not only to write the English summary but also to write coherent sentences in English. In other words, foreign students must not only attend to the meaning of the passage but also to the construction of their sentences in English.

During the first study, both foreign and American students benefited from a slower reading of sentences in the passage by the investigator. In cases where the subject did not understand a sentence in the passage that was played twice, the investigator read the sentence for the student. Whether another opportunity to hear the sentence at a slower pace or the clearer enunciation of words in the sentence made a difference, more times than not, the students were able to come up with the meanings of words as well as sentences. To label a student as being good or poor in second-language listening proficiency is surely affected by the manner in which that listening comprehension task is accomplished and how a score is determined.

Foreign-language teachers need to be aware that foreign students may be handicapped by the measurement device used in determining a skill and that a score on a listening comprehension exercise does have its limitations; it tells us whether or not a student can understand what is in the

passage but it does not tell us whether the student knows the words and phrases or how he goes about assigning meaning to what he hears.

After the first study was conducted at OSU, the interview procedures and taped interviews were carefully reviewed by the investigator. Although the investigator tried to follow the nine interviewing principles identified by Hosenfeld in studies dealing with reading and reading-grammar tasks, it was evident that the investigator required additional training in an investigation dealing with ethnographic interviews. For unlike a reading or reading-grammar task, which is continually visible to the subject and the investigator, a listening comprehension task involves the processing of aural stimuli that are normally played twice but cannot be referred to again. Problems were identified that needed correcting. They were as follows:

1. Be patient. At times, the subject would have to think a while about what he did to comprehend the passage. Consequently, the investigator must not get apprehensive and be bothered by moments of prolonged silence. After all, in many cases, this was the first time that a subject was asked to explain how and what he listens to and comprehends in a passage in a second language, much less his/her own native language. Therefore, allow the subject to describe his or her listening strategy at their own pace.

2. Be able to rephrase a question. On a few occasions a subject would say, "I do not know what you mean." The investigator must be prepared to restate the question in another form in order to obtain a response.
3. State a question simply, clearly, and as briefly as possible. Brevity is paramount. This investigator discovered that it was not uncommon to hear himself on tape asking a question, rephrasing it and adding on to the original question. It is difficult as is for the subject to describe what he or she may not have been asked to do before. So, the need to be patient and to the point is imperative.
4. Ask the subject to speak up. Since this investigation is recorded on tape and the subject's responses are data and therefore, important to the study, subjects must be asked to speak up when describing their listening strategy. A good place to get the subject started on speaking up (if necessary) is during the practice session.
5. Do not make value judgements during the interview. This comment is similar to Hosenfeld who said, "Do not teach during the interview." There is a great need for the investigator to be an impartial judge. Therefore, do not say "good" if the subject gives you the correct answer or "that's not correct" if the subject provides an incorrect answer. In addition, do not provide positive or negative feedback (verbally or non-verbally) to the subject. "Perhaps" is a good word to use so that the subject is not provided with additional clues when describing his listening strategy and what he thought was comprehended.

6. Listen carefully to what the subject is saying. Similar to the passage that is no longer available once it's played, the subject's response although recorded on cassette tape, is gone. Of course, the subject could be asked to repeat the response. Or perhaps, the tape recorder could be rewound and played to hear the response again. The investigator must give his full attention to what the subject is saying at the moment. The investigator must not be overly concerned with asking the next question on the checklist. The subject may be going off on a tangent. The investigator must get the subject back to the original question if this occurs.
7. Be flexible. Since a subject will often provide more information than anticipated, be ready to continue along another line of questioning before returning to a checklist of questions. Hosenfeld (1979a) said, "Follow the learner and and go where he or she leads you" (p.69-71). This is true, but the investigator must guide the subject along.
8. Be ready to probe deeper. Hosenfeld (1979b) said, "Distinguish between an incomplete and a complete description of a study." This is not easy. Interviewer training and experience is the key. Reading about it helps a little but experience is the teacher. One can be too engrossed in following a list of questions and and not be paying full attention to the subject's response. One must first listen and understand what the subject is saying. Subjects may be asked to repeat their responses or to explain their actions further.

Several steps were undertaken to ensure the quality of future interviews. First, several subjects were interviewed. These initial taped interviews were reviewed by the interviewer and two foreign-language educators not involved with the investigation. The latter provided the interviewer with suggestions for improving the interviews.

Second, the remaining interviews were conducted and reviewed again. Third, the investigator discussed the purpose of the dissertation and the transcribed interviews with Hosenfeld who made four very helpful suggestions, particularly those concerning the types of questions to ask.

First, it was determined that the line of questioning was, at times, too direct. Thus, questions were reworded; made indirect to evoke valid student responses without leading them in a certain direction. In other words, open-ended questions were needed to provide the informant with an opportunity to describe his or her actions and feelings and not simply say yes or no to a question. According to Lofland (1971), the purpose of indirect or open-ended questions is:

Not to elicit choices between alternative answers to pre-formed questions but, rather, to elicit from the interviewee what he considers to be important questions relative to a given topic, his description of some situation being explored. Its object is to carry on a guided conversation and to elicit rich, detailed materials that can be used in qualitative analysis. Its object is to find out what kind of things are happening, rather than to determine the frequency of predetermined kinds of things that the researcher already believes can happen. (p. 76)

Second, it was resolved that by definition alone, the first study did not involve introspection, a look within oneself as the task is being accomplished by the learner.

Consequently, a new label, contemplation, was selected for what was originally termed introspection to determine what learners are doing in order to comprehend aural stimuli. Although introspection was successfully utilized in discovering reading-grammar and reading strategies, that technique could not be used to ascertain listening strategies. By definition, a listening comprehension passage involves several sentences dealing with a single thought that is normally played twice. Because the tape in this first study was stopped after every sentence in the passage, introspection by definition was not possible.

Third, it was agreed that both the retrospective and introspective (changed to contemplation) questions on several occasions elicited listening strategies of a global nature and were not specific enough to the task. In other words, a few of the questions tended to evoke responses concerning the student's listening strategies on various types of listening comprehension exercises and not the passage that the subject had just heard. Therefore, a third category of questions was established and called experiential questions.

Experiential questions, known to ethnographers as "experience questions" (Spradley, 1979, p. 88) asks informants, "for any experiences they have had in some

particular setting . . . are so [very] open ended . . . best used after asking numerous grand tour and mini tour questions." Grand tour questions are somewhat similar to retrospective questions while mini tour questions resemble introspective questions. Grand tour questions asks the informant to provide a general description "of significant features of the cultural scene" (Spradley, 1979, p. 87), in this study, the listening comprehension exercise. The objective of this type of questioning is to encourage to student to talk and to keep on talking. The mini tour questions, "deal with a much smaller unit of experience" (Spradley, 1979, p. 88) similar to the contemplation phase in this investigation where the informant listens to each sentence in the passage and describes his or her actions. So, questions were reworded and resequenced under appropriate headings such as retrospection, contemplation, and experiential questions.

Fourth, it was decided that the investigator could better understand the interview process, including questions to ask, if he became an informant. So, the interviewer assumed the role of an informant with Chinese, a language he had studied before in graduate school. A graduate student from Taiwan was asked by this investigator to write several passages in Chinese based on the criteria established for

listening passages in this study. He was asked to provide an English summary as well as to describe his mental processes in order to understand what he had heard. So, after being asked to 'think-aloud' and viewing his own listening strategies on a listening comprehension task in Chinese, the investigator was better prepared for the second study.

By personally participating in the "think-aloud" process, conducting and reviewing interviews from the first study, and by receiving and reviewing comments and suggestions from foreign-language educators, in particular, Hosenfeld, the investigator was ready to proceed. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is accepted: an interview procedure can be developed to determine students' listening strategies on a listening comprehension task.

Summary

The first study at OSU resolved two matters prior to the conduct of the second study. First, two of the three prerequisites for the main purpose of the inquiry were settled: college-level students can identify and describe their listening strategies and an interview procedure can be developed to elicit students' responses on their listening strategies. Second, it provided the investigator

with the opportunity to test and sharpen interviewing skills as well as to identify and correct problem areas. So, the first study provided the investigator with three sets of interview questions and the interviewing experience necessary to proceed to the second study.

CHAPTER IV

DESCRIPTION OF THE SECOND ETHNOGRAPHIC INTERVIEWS

Purpose

The purpose of this preliminary investigation into listening strategies of students was to determine successful and unsuccessful listening strategies utilized on a listening comprehension task in beginning college Japanese. The "think-aloud" technique used in foreign-language education by Hosenfeld on reading-grammar and reading tasks was selected to elicit the self-report data of subjects.

The primary objective in gathering students' descriptions of what they do during a listening comprehension task is to identify and categorize successful listening strategies and perhaps teach them to less successful students so that their listening comprehension proficiency can be improved. Maybe even the students who do adequately or very well on listening comprehension tasks can be made aware of the successful and unsuccessful strategies for comprehending aural stimuli so they too can be assisted by determining listening strategies that detract or add in their attempt to comprehend speech.

The first study determined that college-level students could describe what they do in order to comprehend a listening passage. It revealed, however, that the investigator needed to rearrange the interview so as to have retrospective, contemplative, and experiential questions.

The purpose of the second study was to use a revised and upgraded interview procedure and list of questions to determine what successful and unsuccessful learners do on a listening comprehension task in beginning college Japanese. Permission to conduct this study was received from the Acting Head of the Department of Foreign Languages at the United States Air Force (USAF) Academy. The Deputy for Instruction, responsible for the conduct of instruction in all language courses, and the Instructor of Japanese both indicated their willingness to cooperate in this study.

Subjects and Setting

The subjects in this investigation were first-year (second semester) Japanese (J) language-students at the USAF Academy, located in Colorado Springs, Colorado. Japanese-language students were selected because the researcher is familiar with the language and was very interested in identifying listening strategies employed during listening comprehension tasks. The USAF Academy was chosen as the

site for study since the classroom materials and facilities are standardized in comparison to other colleges and universities. In addition, because the investigator was previously affiliated with the institution, the listening passages were developed to minimize any disturbances to the on-going instruction as well as to provide further opportunities for development of the listening skill.

The USAF Academy has a one-and-a-half semester foreign-language requirement for all freshmen. Each student who has studied or been exposed to a foreign-language (e.g., travel, parents, et cetera) is administered a Placement/Validation (P/V Exam) and either satisfies the foreign-language requirement or is placed into an appropriate foreign-language course sequence based upon language ability as determined by a USAF Academy P/V Exam and learner interest in the language.

Usually, the first-year Japanese classes (two sections of 10-15 students each) are comprised of three to five students who have had some previous experience in the language, 15 to 20 students who have had the experience of studying other languages, and three to five students who have had no previous language study. The subjects in this study were very similar in composition to the above described population. Initially, in the fall, there were 20 students

enrolled in the basic language course. When this study was undertaken, there were 18 students in the basic language course. Of these 18 students, six had taken the Japanese P/V Exam with two students validating or satisfying the first half of the foreign-language requirement while the remaining four students were placed in the J131 course. The two students who validated J131 were enrolled in J132 during the second semester when this study took place. Twelve other students had studied another foreign language previously while two students had not had any prior exposure to another language.

The original 18 subjects were divided into two sections which met at various times during the school year. Both sections were taught by the same instructor. During the first semester, the students had consecutive 50-minute classes that met every other day with a ten-minute break in the middle. One section met at 7:30 a.m.-9:20 a.m. on one day while the other section gathered at 12:40 p.m.-2:30 p.m. In the second semester, however, classes were held for 50 minutes every other day. In addition, both sections met on the same day, one from 12:40 p.m.-1:30 p.m. and the other section from 2:40 p.m.-3:30 p.m. Although meeting at different times throughout the year, the students received identical language study materials and instruction. Due to

the examination policy at the USAF Academy, separate but similar testing devices were employed during the first semester. During the second semester, however, the same examination was used because both classes met on the same day and in the afternoon. Thus, throughout the year, the students had the same instructor, were exposed to the same learning materials and were evaluated in the same manner.

The curricular philosophy of the Department of Foreign Languages at the USAF Academy places emphasis on listening and speaking skills in the basic course sequence. Thus, the focus of the J131 and J132 courses at the USAF Academy is on the listening and speaking skills with a secondary emphasis on the reading and writing skills. The majority of classroom instruction is devoted to oral drills, question-and-answer drills (teacher-to-student and student-to-student), recorded pattern drills utilizing the electronic classroom, and taped material consisting of either a narration or dialogue followed by oral questions and answers (at times written) on the contents of the passage.

The listening comprehension passages used for the first and second study were not identical because different textbooks were used at the separate locations. The Japanese language textbook used at the USAF Academy in J131-132 is Young and Nakajima's, Learn Japanese: College Text, Volume

I and II (Lessons 1-8). The text used at OSU for J101-102 is The Fundamentals of Japanese by Uehara and Kiyose. Although the grammar in both language textbooks is somewhat similar, the order of presentation and sequencing of the grammar were not identical. In addition, the vocabulary introduced in both texts are different. Thus, two sets of three listening comprehension passages were used: one set at OSU and the other at the USAF Academy. Regardless of the different sets of listening passages, the main purpose of the study was to have students describe what they do in order to comprehend speech.

For this study, identical procedures were used in recording the cassette masters as the first study, except that the duplication process was done at another location utilizing a different duplicating machine. The cassette masters were duplicated at the USAF Academy recording laboratory by a Recording Technician with seven years experience as the assistant director and director of the foreign language laboratory. This Recording Technician reproduced a copy of the prerecorded passages by using a Telex Model 300, cassette-to-cassette tape duplicator.

Interview Facilities and Materials

The interview facility was a spacious room located adjacent to the foreign-language laboratory. The interview site was selected for three reasons. First, the equipment necessary for this study was available nearby. Second, the director of the foreign-language laboratory was always available to repair or replace any electronic equipment that malfunctioned. Third, because the subjects already knew the site of the foreign-language laboratory, locating the interview room next to it during their very busy schedules was convenient. Because the interview lasted approximately 60 minutes and each student usually had only one (60 minute) or perhaps two free periods each day, it was imperative that each subject be on time. The Instructor of Japanese at the USAF Academy scheduled the subjects and gave them each a slip of paper indicating whom to meet, where, and at what time. The following materials and equipment were used (see Appendix B for items 1, 3, and 6):

1. A one-page written statement explaining the purpose of the study and instructions for the investigation.
2. A Background Information Sheet to gather pertinent background data on each subject.
3. One copy of the practice exercise to determine the subject's ability to 'think aloud.'
4. An empty cassette tape box and three pieces of folded paper marked 1, 2, or 3.

5. A pencil and a sheet of paper for each student to take notes (if they so desired) and to write their English summary of the passage.
6. One copy of the three passages in Japanese for each subject denoting which passages s/he heard.
7. One blank 60-minute cassette tape per student.
8. One (master) cassette tape of each of the three listening passages (plus a copy, if necessary).
9. One Wollensak 3M cassette tape recorder, Model 2532AV (additional ones available, if necessary) for broadcasting the passages.
10. One Panasonic cassette tape recorder, Model RQ-409S for taping the interviews.
11. One copy of my list of interview questions.

Prior to each interview, materials were put in order and all equipment checked to ensure that it was functioning properly.

Interview Procedures and Instrumentation

The interviews were conducted at the USAF Academy from April 15, 1980 to April 18, 1980. The 18 subjects enrolled in the basic Japanese course were asked to participate in this investigation. Although the interviews were not mandatory, all students complied with the request. Thus, 18 subjects were interviewed over a four-day period. The following interview format was used during this investigation.

Listed in the left-hand column is the activity and in the right-hand column is the approximate time (in minutes) spent on each portion of the interview.

Interview Format

	<u>Activity</u>	<u>Time</u>
1.	Greetings and purpose of the study	3
2.	Background information	5
3.	Practice session	5
4.	Selection and playing of the first tape	4
5.	Written summary	5
6.	Retrospection	15
7.	Selection and playing of the second tape	2
8.	Contemplation	10
9.	Experiential Questions	5
10.	Concluding remarks	<u>1</u>
	Total:	55

For those few students who forgot their appointments or arrived too late for their interviews, an immediate schedule change was made for the next mutually agreeable time.

The majority of subjects appeared at the correct location and at the appointed hour for their interviews. Each subject was warmly welcomed into the interviewing room, seated, made to feel comfortable and provided with a written

statement of the purpose of the study as well as instructions for the study. Questions posed by subjects after reading the statement were given appropriate replies. After student questions were answered, subjects were informed that their performance on this listening comprehension task would not affect their foreign language grade. The interviewer stressed, however, that the subject do his/her best because the study was being used to identify what learners like themselves do in order to complete a listening comprehension task in the foreign-language classroom. Furthermore, the subjects were informed that these listening exercises would provide them with an additional opportunity to practice one of the emphasized skills in their basic Japanese course.

The next portion of the interview involved getting to know the subjects. The Background Information sheet (see Appendix B) was utilized in order to establish rapport with the subjects and to collect some pertinent data from them. The following information was gathered:

1. Biographical data.
2. Prior foreign-language study.
3. Prior foreign-language exposure.
4. Reason(s) for studying Japanese.
5. Subject's self-concept as a foreign-language learner.

The investigator completed the Background Information sheet for each subject with a copy of it placed before the subject. In this manner, the data on each subject was kept as uniform as possible as opposed to having different replies due to confusion or misinterpretation of the requested information. When necessary, student responses were clarified to ensure that both the student and the investigator were speaking about the same topic or idea. Furthermore, this question-and-answer period established the kind of atmosphere that was to follow. Prior to discovering student listening strategies, however, a brief training period was necessary to determine if students could describe their mental processes on a listening comprehension task.

The practice session on the "think-aloud" technique involved the informant listening to a three-sentence paragraph in Japanese (see Appendix B) read by the investigator, after which, s/he described his/her activities in order to comprehend the short passage. Once the investigator ascertained that the subject was familiar with the "think-aloud" technique and able to describe his/her activities, the study proceeded.

Each subject randomly selected one of the three taped passages. A small empty box with three pieces of folded paper, each containing a number written on it (e.g., 1, 2 or

3) was handed to the subject. The numbers on the pieces of paper corresponded to the three narrations on tape. Consequently, if a subject picked the piece of paper with the number 2 written on it, s/he heard the cassette tape labeled number 2. By providing more than one listening passage, the subjects were given an opportunity to listen to tapes of varied difficulty levels containing different content, vocabulary and grammar that they had covered in the Japanese language course and thereby increasing the validity of the study. If only one passage had been prepared, the content, vocabulary, and grammar not to mention the difficulty level might have been unsuitable for a few of the subjects and would have also provided a very limited amount of generalizeability of the findings. Once the subject selected the narration to be heard, the initial gathering of data began.

The first part of the "think-aloud" process required the informant to listen to a narrative in Japanese and to write a summary of it in English. Instructions for the listening comprehension task preceded the passage (see Appendix B). The prerecorded narration that the subject had chosen was played on a Wollensak cassette tape recorder. After the passage was heard twice, the subject was given five minutes to write in English as complete a summary as possible of the

tape-recorded passage. The time for a subject to write an English summary was determined in the first study. Because listening comprehension is defined in this study as attaching meaning to spoken speech it seems reasonable to assume that an English summary would reveal how much a person understood. In other words, the subject's summary would provide a measure of his/her listening proficiency. The written summaries were later scored by an Instructor of Japanese not involved in the study. Once the written summary was accomplished, the subject was then asked to describe what s/he did to understand the passage and to write the summary.

The informant's verbal responses/protocols were recorded on a Panasonic cassette tape recorder. A second cassette tape recorder containing a blank cassette tape was employed to gather information from the subject about his/her listening strategies on the listening task. Initially, a retrospective look, a summary of the strategies used by the student to accomplish the task, was determined. The first study conducted at OSU had helped to refine and sharpen the questions, the line of questioning, and the depth of questions utilized to determine students' listening strategies. The following retrospective questions were asked:

1. Did you do anything to prepare yourself prior to listening to this passage? What did you do? Why?
2. How well did you understand (the contents of) this passage?
3. What was this passage about? How did you come to that conclusion?
4. As you listened to this passage the first time, what kinds of things were you doing to (try to) understand this passage? What about the second time, what were you doing then? Is that what you normally do?
5. Why do you or don't you take written notes? How does it help you to remember the passage? How long have you been doing this? (Briefly discuss any written notes the student has taken.)
6. Did you attempt to understand everything in this passage? Why? What sorts of things did you pay attention to in the sentences in order to understand them? How did you get meaning from (or make sense of) what you heard in this passage (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, etc.)? Anything else?
7. When you were understanding the sentences in this passage, what were you doing (in your mind)? What happened when you didn't understand something (e.g., word, phrase, or sentence)? What did you do? Then, what did you do? Is that what you normally do?
8. In terms of difficulty, how would you rate this passage? Why? Were there portions of this passage that were easy? Difficult? Can you explain why?

9. To write the summary for this passage, what did you do to recall its contents (e.g., written notes, mental notes, etc.)? When did you begin formulating the ideas for your summary?
10. Does your summary contain every bit of information that you heard or took notes on? Did you leave anything out? Why?

Once the retrospective aspect of the investigation was completed, a contemplative view of the informants' listening strategies was ascertained. The subject again reached into the empty cassette box, now containing only two pieces of paper, and selected the number of the cassette tape passage s/he would listen to next. In the contemplative view, subjects listened to a different passage only once, gave a brief oral summary of what they understood, and then were questioned on how meaning was determined from what they heard as they listened to the passage a second time, but this time, sentence by sentence. The subject was not informed of the contemplative procedure until s/he had heard the passage once. This procedure was used so that the informant would do the same kind of things that s/he normally did if the passage was heard twice and to determine the reliability of the subjects' verbal protocols during retrospection.

The contemplative procedure was utilized for three reasons. First, a second passage provided each subject with another opportunity to listen to a tape containing a

different topic, vocabulary, and grammar as well as difficulty level. Second, a different passage was used so as not to make use of the same tape utilized in the students' retrospective account. Employing the identical tape in both retrospective and contemplative views was not defensible from the standpoint that listening comprehension tapes are usually heard once or twice but not more often. Third, an introspective view, the subject's mental processes as s/he goes through a task, was not put to use because passages are not heard sentence by sentence; they are normally played in its entirety once or twice.

After the subject had selected a tape, the contemplative view of the listening process began. The prerecorded narration was inserted into the Wollensak cassette tape recorder. Once the subject heard the tape the first time, the Wollensak was stopped, and the Panasonic cassette tape recorder with a blank cassette tape was started. The subject was asked to provide an oral (not written) summary of what s/he had heard and understood. Next, the Wollensak was again started so the subject could listen to the prerecorded passage once more, but this time, sentence by sentence. Consequently, two cassette tape recorders were now in operation. After each sentence, the subject was queried about how s/he extracted meaning from the sentence

that s/he had heard. In other words, a learner's listening strategy on a listening comprehension task was determined by asking the informant to describe what he or she did in order to "make sense" of each sentence as well as the entire passage.

The investigator underlined words/phrases that the subject neglected to mention in the course of his/her attaching meaning to sentences. This was done on a sheet of paper containing the narrations. Again, the first study at OSU had contributed to the refining and sharpening of the number of questions used in the contemplative look at students' listening strategies. The following contemplative questions were asked:

1. After the first playing: what is the passage all about? What gave you that idea? What did you do to understand this passage? What else do you remember about it? Anything else? What do these written notes mean to you (if the student has them)?
2. During the second playing (sentence by sentence): What did you do to understand that sentence? What did you listen for in the sentence. Then, what did you do?
3. Did you attempt to understand everything in that sentence? Why or why not? Did you notice anything else that caught your attention?
4. Can you tell me what you understood/recognized or focused on in the sentence? What did you do with what you understood/recognized or focused on? What does that mean in English? Did anything else catch your attention?

5. Briefly, in your own words (English), tell me what the sentence means. Can you repeat or paraphrase/say that sentence in Japanese for me?
-

Note: Words/phrases/sentences that the subject did not recognize or understand were underlined.

6. How about these vocabulary words and phrases? (Mention those that the subject did not recognize or had difficulty with.) What do you think this word means? (Determine whether or not the subject is willing to guess at a word/phrase through context.)

Subsequent to the contemplative view of students' listening strategies on a listening comprehension task, responses were elicited from informants of their listening strategies on listening comprehension assignments, in general. Both the retrospective and contemplative aspects dealt with specific tapes and perhaps did not deal with what students normally did while accomplishing other types of listening comprehension exercises in the foreign-language classroom. Therefore, student listening strategies on other listening comprehension tasks were solicited as well as information pertaining to their prior foreign language experience(s), problems in listening to the Japanese language, feelings and attitudes towards listening exercises in the classroom, and the subject's perceptions of their listening skill. The Panasonic cassette tape recorder was again turned on to record the informants' verbal protocols.

The following experiential questions were developed and refined during the first study and used.

1. How do you normally feel before a listening exercise? Do you mentally prepare yourself for listening exercises? What do you do prior to listening to them? Is that what you normally do? Why?
2. Do you have a certain way of listening to passages in the foreign-language classroom? Can you explain it? How long have you been using it? Why?
3. Do you use the above technique for all listening comprehension tasks in the foreign-language classroom? Can you explain it? How long have you been using it? Why?
4. Have you studied another foreign language before? Has that experience had any effect on what you do when you are asked to listen to a passage? Can you explain?
5. Does the Japanese language have anything peculiar about it that you must consider when you listen to it (e.g., word order)?
6. How do you normally do on listening exercises (e.g., good, average, poorly)? Can you explain why?
7. How do you feel about listening comprehension exercises in the foreign-language classroom (e.g., like, dislike, etc.)? Why? Do you see a need for listening exercises in the foreign-language classroom? Can you explain?
8. On a scale of one to ten, with one being the least skillful and ten being the most skillful, how good are you at coming up with the meaning of something (words, phrases, sentences) that you did not immediately recognize? Please explain.

9. Is there anything further that you would like to comment on in regards to listening comprehension exercises in the foreign-language classroom?

As each interview was concluded, the subject was given his/her final instructions. They were asked not to discuss the interview, its procedures, the questions, or the contents of the tapes with their classmates until all interviews were completed. This was done to ensure that as much as possible, subjects would not be familiar with what they would encounter on the listening comprehension exercise or be asked to do during the question-and-answer session. Subjects were told, however, that once the interviews were concluded, their Japanese instructor would notify them so they could discuss any or all aspects of the interview if they desired to do so. At no time during or after the interview with the students was a disclosure made about the relationship between the interviews and questionnaire on listening that was to follow in a few weeks.

Analysis of the Data

The second study was conducted using three sets of questions--retrospection, contemplation, and experiential questions--developed before, during, and after the first study. The replies of the successful listeners were compared and contrasted with those of the unsuccessful

listeners.

The verbal protocols of 12 of the 18 subjects enrolled in Japanese 132 were examined in this preliminary inquiry of students' listening strategies. The 18 students were divided into two groups based on their listening comprehension test scores (six measurement devices) over a period of a semester-and-a-half. The six successful students (upper-third) had listening comprehension scores that ranged from 90.2% to 75.3% with a mean of 80.9% for the group. On the other hand, the six unsuccessful students (lower-third) had listening comprehension scores that ranged from 67.6% to 45.8% with a group mean of 56.6%.

The verbal protocols in this study were analyzed by using Hosenfeld's (1979a) recommended method of determining students' learning processes; that is, to transcribe the verbal protocols and to do a qualitative analysis consisting of the following three steps:

1. Describe the strategies of individual students.
2. Describe consistencies among the strategies of of 'successful' students and among the strategies of 'unsuccessful' students ('success' may be determined by the student's score on a proficiency test or by his performance on the task used to elicit his strategies).
3. Contrast the strategies of both groups of students and develop a checklist specifying what 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' students do while they perform the task. (pp. 52-53)

Results of the Second Study

The verbal protocols of successful and unsuccessful listeners in beginning college Japanese were compared and contrasted and subjected to a qualitative analysis. For detailed interviews and analyses of questions, see Appendix B. Below is a Listening Strategy Checklist of what good and poor listeners do while performing a listening comprehension task.

Listening Strategy Checklist

Successful

Active participants--
prepares before a listening
comprehension exercise--
relaxes, blocks out
extraneous noises, and
concentrates on the tape.

During the first playing,
seeks main topic and key
points, able to follow
train of thought, and
uses context.

During the second playing,
reaffirms what was heard
during the first playing,
makes changes (if
necessary), and attends
to form.

In sentences, attends to
subject-verb relationship,
form, as well as adverbs,
adjectives and other words.

Unsuccessful

Semi-active participants--
not adequately prepared
before a listening
comprehension exercise.

During the first playing,
seizes upon what is familiar
only--words or phrases.

During the second playing,
does not confirm what was
heard during the first
playing but seeks to
understand what was not
comprehended.

In sentences, unable to
attend to subject and verb
at once. Thus, cannot
follow train of thought.
Often, ends up guessing.

Able to hear and translate simultaneously while passage is played.

Attempts to comprehend the entire passage.

Able to attend to meaning and form, often simultaneously.

Processes information and comprehends the passage.

Feels comfortable before a comprehension exercise--self-confident.

Has a self-developed listening strategy.

Uses same listening strategy for all strategy listening exercises and has not tried other things to improve listening comprehension.

Not overly concerned with Japanese sentence structure (word order).

Very aware of their capabilities.

Unable to translate quickly and often gets hung up on unknown words or phrases.

Does not attempt to comprehend the entire passage (it's virtually impossible).

In most cases, can not attend to meaning much less form.

Constructs what is logical based on what is familiar.

Nervous, tense, or scared before a listening comprehension exercise--not self-confident.

Has a self-developed listening strategy.

Uses same listening strategy for all listening exercises and has tried other things to improve listening comprehension.

Very concerned with Japanese sentence structure (word order) and need to rearrange it for comprehension.

Very aware of their limitations--frustrated by inability to do better.

Enjoys listening comprehension exercises and sees it as a means to an end--to understand a foreigner. To determine an unknown, uses context, other words, and sentences. Speaks often of making sense and using logic. Does not linger on an unknown.

Would like more listening comprehension exercises in class.

Does not enjoy listening comprehension exercises and would like to understand what is being said. Unable to use context often. Hangs on to unknown and often loses parts of the passage.

Does not mind listening comprehension exercises but feels that the emphasis should be on its comprehension.

The "think-aloud" technique was used to obtain insights into students' listening strategies on a listening comprehension task. These listening strategies of successful and unsuccessful students were gathered, compared, and contrasted. It must be remembered, however, that this study was not only a preliminary investigation into listening strategies but also an initial attempt to determine if students could describe what they do in order to comprehend aural stimuli. More investigations of this type will have to be conducted and reviewed before any further claims can be made. This study did show that listening strategies can be solicited based on the questions asked. Two of the three types of queries, retrospection and experiential questions, yielded information that could be examined. Contemplation, however, was another matter.

The contemplation portion of the "think-aloud" technique used in this study was not very fruitful except to verify the reliability of the subject's listening strategies as reported during the retrospection portion of each interview. In the future, a better procedure is needed to elicit the verbal protocols during the contemplative view of a subject's listening strategy.

Perhaps the length of the passage needs to be modified. Because listening comprehension passages are rarely stopped after each sentence, shorter passages (three to five sentences) can be utilized. Maybe, the student should be allowed to determine whether to continue or to stop the tape of the listening exercise. Once the subject stops the tape, the investigator can determine the source of confusion. It must be remembered, however, that teaching should not take place at this time but rather a determination should be made of what the student is doing or trying in order to comprehend. Perhaps passages of varying difficulty (increase in number of unknown vocabulary words) could be used to ascertain listening strategies. Possibly, more training in the "think-aloud" procedure is needed prior to eliciting introspective (contemplative) data on a listening comprehension task.

In any case, the contemplative questions did verify the reliability of the students' listening strategy during the retrospective portion of the ethnographic interview. It also provided an opportunity to see that students truly want to do their best on a listening comprehension task--they want to understand what is being said. In fact, the sentence-by-sentence procedure enabled this investigator to see that students know much more than we give them credit for if one were to merely observe the score on a listening comprehension task. For example, students do know quite a few vocabulary words and phrases but simply cannot put them together fast enough in order to follow the train of thought and comprehend the passage.

At this point, it might prove interesting to compare Hosenfeld's finding (1979b) regarding successful reading strategies and the results of this preliminary investigation into successful listening strategies. Perhaps there are overlapping points which may stimulate further research of these two reception skills.

Except for two of the nine strategies which deal with looking up unknown words in the back of the book, the data are very similar. Successful reading and listening strategies involve such things as having a positive self-concept as a reader or listener, the ability to determine

the meaning of a passage by selecting what is important from sentences and being able to follow the train of thought, the willingness to let go of the unknown word or phrase, and the capability to successfully come up with meanings of uncomprehended information.

Summary

The second study in this preliminary inquiry into the successful and unsuccessful listening strategies of beginning college Japanese students was able to identify and categorize a number of good/successful and poor/unsuccessful listening strategies. When compared to the strategies employed by successful readers in Hosenfeld's study (1979b), there were similarities. As part of this inquiry into what students do in order to comprehend a second language, the investigator also developed a Listening Strategy Questionnaire to identify factors involved in listening comprehension. The purpose of the Listening Strategy Questionnaire was to determine what students thought were important in order to comprehend listening comprehension passages. Responses were requested from a larger number of students than was possible in Japanese where the enrollment was only 18 students.

CHAPTER V

LISTENING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Purpose

This preliminary investigation of listening strategies was undertaken to determine what successful and unsuccessful students do when they attempt to comprehend speech. As such, the first and second studies in this investigation involved ethnographic interviews to ascertain what students say they do. Commenting on qualitative and quantitative methods being used together in research, Reichardt and Cook (1979) note that, "the two method-types can build upon one another to offer insights that neither one alone would provide" (p. 27). Because the research on listening strategies is so sparse, perhaps the combination of the ethnographic interviews and the listening strategy questionnaire might provide some initial insights into this often-neglected language learning skill. If it is possible to identify successful listening strategies, then perhaps, these successful strategies can be brought to the attention and even taught to students who need assistance in developing the listening comprehension skill. Thus, as part of this study, the questionnaire, Your Way of Trying to Understand Listening

Comprehension Exercises (see Appendix B), was developed to determine students' listening strategies in listening comprehension tasks.

Development of the Questionnaire

The items in the questionnaire were the result of readings and personal experiences of the investigator. The literature reviewed included communication theory (Cherry, 1957), message perception (Neisser, 1967, 1976) strategies of perceptual segmentation (Bever, 1970), strategies in listening comprehension (Clark & Clark, 1977), the chapter on listening in a foreign-language teaching textbook (Rivers & Temperley, 1978), the many articles on learning strategy by Hosenfeld (1975, 1976, 1977a, 1977b, 1979a, 1979b), and the reports on the good language learner (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman et al., 1978; Omaggio, 1978). In addition, the researcher's observations of student's written notes during listening comprehension exercises were used.

The listening strategy questionnaire utilized a Likert format (Likert, 1932) with a 6-point scale (Lett, 1976). An even-numbered scale supposedly increases the variance on each measure because it forces a choice instead of providing a midpoint as in an odd-numbered scale. Steps were also taken to minimize the influence of a response set by

reversing items, that is, stating items negatively so subjects would read each item closely and mixing up items so that subjects could not see a pattern in the items nor respond according to a particular pattern.

Prior to being used in the actual study, however, the questionnaire was field tested at OSU during the first study. As Gay (1976) recommended, the questionnaire should be pre-tested by initially "having two or three available people complete the questionnaire" (p. 131) to identify major problems before revising the instrument for the first study. Thus, four foreign-language teachers (including a Japanese-language instructor), reviewed the questionnaire and made suggestions to improve the wording and clarity of the items. Gay further recommended that "pretest subjects should be encouraged to make comments and suggestions concerning directions, recording procedures, and specific items" (p. 131). Therefore, subjects participating in the first study were asked to put a question mark next to the item number in the questionnaire that confused them and to further indicate the source of confusion in the statement. During the individual interviews that followed the administration of the questionnaire, the subjects were asked to comment on their reason(s) for misunderstanding or being confused by certain items in the questionnaire.

In the first study at OSU, the questionnaire was distributed to the subjects in Japanese 102 during the last five minutes of the normally scheduled class hour. There was no time available during the regular class hour to administer the questionnaire. The students completed the questionnaire and returned it during the next scheduled class period. Absolutely no mention of a follow-up interview was made to the subjects by the investigator or their Japanese-language instructors. This procedure was followed so that the subjects would not try to remember how they had responded to the questionnaire as they answered questions during the interview. Other than a simple breakdown of the items in the questionnaire, however, no further analysis was performed in the first study because of the small number of available subjects.

Thus, with recommendations from colleagues, feedback from subjects, the analysis of data from the field-tested questionnaire and information gathered during the interviews, a revised questionnaire was produced for the second study. The 68 items in the questionnaire used a 6-point scale (disagree strongly, disagree, disagree slightly, agree slightly, agree, and agree strongly). Scores from 1 to 6 were assigned to each response so that a high score indicated strong agreement.

The questionnaire in the second study was analyzed by means of a factor analysis (Nie et al., 1975) using principal components analysis and a discriminant function analysis. Factor analysis, according to Child (1973), is "The science of finding . . . related phenomena" (p. 5). Studies in psychology pertaining to intelligence and personality have made extensive use of factor analysis. Recently, however, the behavioral scientists have recognized its usefulness in identifying and grouping the related phenomena from the numerous variables associated with politics, economics, etc. According to Kerlinger (1973), factor analysis can be used in an exploratory manner (p. 687). And, as Rummel (1977) notes, "In a relatively new domain of interest in which the complex interrelations of phenomena have undergone little systematic investigation, factor analysis is useful for exploring the unknown" (p.31). Thus, the questionnaire in this study was analyzed by applying the factor analysis procedure initially to identify and classify factors associated with listening comprehension tasks. In an area as complex as the listening comprehension skill, one can only hope to add bits of information to this topic.

Limitations

There are limitations, however, to the factors uncovered in the questionnaire; the factors are limited by the statements on listening comprehension in the questionnaire itself. Perhaps there are many other statements that should have been included in the questionnaire that would have led to other factors. Then too, there is a possibility that the subjects in responding to the questionnaire did so according to what they would like to do and not what they really do. In any case, the study's exploratory nature and its limitations should help in interpreting the data.

Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to freshmen cadets during the Spring semester (April 1980) at the USAF Academy. The freshmen population at the USAF Academy is comprised of cadets from every state in the Union. The questionnaire was administered by instructors in seven languages who received explicit directions on procedures and completed by the subjects in 20 minutes. Subjects were notified that the questionnaire was an instrument to identify what they do during listening comprehension exercises.

The listening questionnaire was completed during the last week of April by 802 subjects studying seven languages: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish. Students from both the basic (FL 131-132) and accelerated-basic (FL 141-142) courses were asked to participate so that a sufficient number of responses would be received. In all, 522 basic students and 280 accelerated-basic students filled out questionnaires. The basic course is comprised of students who either have not previously studied a foreign language or who have taken up to two semesters (one year) of a foreign language and perhaps a few who have had four semesters of language study. On the other hand, the accelerated-basic course is made up of a vast majority of students who have three or more semesters of high school foreign-language courses.

The vast majority of students completed the questionnaire. Of the 802 subjects responding to the questionnaire, 444 of them completed all 68 items and 309 responded to all but one item. Four subjects omitted 9 to 21 items while six other subjects omitted 3 to 6 items. Items omitted in the survey were handled through a missing values command for the factor analysis program. In other words, unanswered items were not omitted but were instead given the mean value of that item and computed accordingly.

Statistical Analysis

The Factor Analysis Program in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized to analyze the questionnaire data. The factor analysis was run at the USAF Academy's Academic Computer Center using the Burroughs 6900 system. Responses to the listening strategy questionnaire were analyzed by factor analysis to determine the salient underlying dimensions of this instrument. Factor analysis seeks variable relationships not obvious from inspection of raw data. A principal axis analysis was performed with squared multiple correlation coefficients in the diagonal. A principal components analysis reorganizes data to disclose underlying factors in the variance and provides relative importance of the factors.

Table 1 provides a list of the top 38 factors that collectively account for 80 percent of the variance of the questionnaire. The linearity of eigenvalue curvature was examined by the scree test (Cattell, 1966), which indicated that six factors should be retained for rotation and analysis (see Figure 1). A varimax rotation was performed on these six factors to maximize their variance and best indicate the simple structure. Labels for each factor were determined by the items in that factor.

Table 1

Listening Strategy Questionnaire
 Principle Factoring Solution Before Rotation
 Used to Determine Salient Features

Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Cum Var
1	9.22324	13.6	13.6
2	4.04405	5.9	19.5
3	3.65567	5.4	24.9
4	2.55757	3.8	28.6
5	2.19171	3.2	31.9
6	1.68464	2.5	34.3
7	1.53104	2.3	36.6
8	1.44772	2.1	38.7
9	1.36915	2.0	40.7
10	1.31563	1.9	42.7
11	1.22797	1.8	44.5
12	1.20296	1.8	46.3
13	1.12526	1.7	47.9
14	1.10994	1.6	49.5
15	1.10719	1.6	51.2
16	1.08857	1.6	52.8
17	1.04356	1.5	54.3
18	1.01099	1.5	55.8
19	0.99701	1.5	57.3
20	0.95390	1.4	58.7
21	0.93369	1.4	60.0
22	0.90723	1.3	61.4
23	0.89648	1.3	62.7
24	0.88350	1.3	64.0
25	0.86866	1.3	65.3
26	0.84226	1.2	66.5
27	0.83127	1.2	67.7
28	0.80004	1.2	68.9
29	0.78844	1.2	70.1
30	0.76934	1.2	71.2
31	0.76050	1.1	72.3
32	0.74891	1.1	73.4
33	0.73914	1.1	74.5
34	0.70688	1.0	75.5
35	0.69901	1.0	76.6
36	0.68252	1.0	77.6
37	0.67713	1.0	78.6
38	0.65863	1.0	79.5

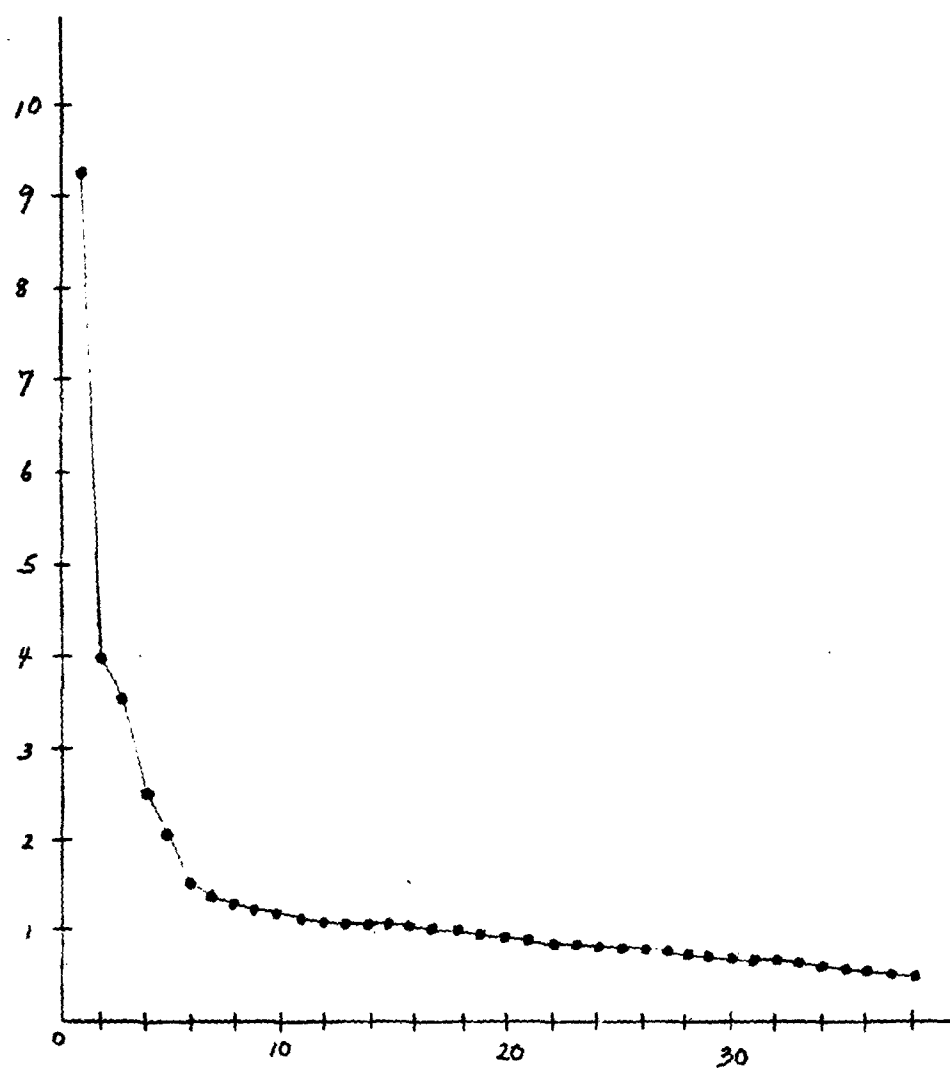


Figure 1

Listening Strategy Questionnaire
Cattell Scree Plot

The six factors were plotted to check for appropriateness of an oblique solution. In general, the plots indicated that the factors loaded on the orthogonal. Therefore, a varimax rotation was used to achieve a meaningful solution. All factor loadings smaller than .25 were omitted from each factor. Table 2 provides information on percentage of variance and cumulative percentage of the six factors.

Table 2
Listening Strategy Questionnaire
Principle Factoring Solution After Rotation

Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Cum Var
1	8.53919	44.4	44.4
2	3.50556	18.2	62.7
3	2.97779	15.5	78.2
4	1.84876	9.6	87.8
5	1.43130	7.4	95.2
6	0.91951	4.8	100.0

Interpretation of the Factors

Factor 1. The pattern of loadings on this factor suggested the label "Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension" (see Table 3). It indicates that a person

subject knows what to listen for, can understand a passage without knowing every word, follow the train of thought, organize the information, and not get flustered; in other words, the subject has a way to break the code.

Table 3

Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 1
Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension

Item Number	Item	Factor Loading
48	Whenever I listen to passages, the words seem to run together making it difficult to understand the sentences.	.66
1	I only understand a few words in each sentence.	.63
10	I do not have trouble organizing the information in the passages.	.62
54	I do not have any difficulty relating one sentence to another sentence in the passage.	.59
58	I do not know what to listen for in the passage.	.57
43	I understand passages even though I do not know a few words.	.53
35	If I am unable to understand a few words in the passage, I do poorly.	.51
55	After listening to the passage once, I am able to come up with the central theme of the passage.	.51
49	I am able to follow the "train of thought" throughout a passage.	.48
52	After listening to the passage twice, I remember entire phrases from many of the sentences.	.47

The final item-total correlations ranged from .60 down to .27. The coefficient of reliability was .88. This level of internal consistency is the highest obtained for a scale in this investigation. Due to the low item-total correlations, items 2 and 27 were deleted, yielding a Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach & Snow, 1977) of .88.

Factor 2. "Focus/Search for Meaning," was the title suggested by the pattern of loadings on this factor (see Table 4). Students look to make sense of what they hear by seeking out main ideas, solving the problem of unknown words, and being organized.

Table 4
Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 2
Focus/Search for Meaning

Item Number	Item	Factor Loading
42	I come up with the meaning of words that I do not immediately recognize by using the remainder of the passage to assist me.	.55
8	I grasp the main ideas/concepts in the passage rather than trying to understand every word.	.53
13	From the words and phrases that I understand in the sentences, I build a logical meaning for the entire passage.	.52
11	I determine the meaning of a word I do not immediately recognize by using the remaining words in the sentence as clues.	.52
23	After listening to the passage once, I know what sections to listen for during the second playing.	.48
65	I get my thoughts organized by getting the "gist" of the message on the first playing of the tape, and then I attempt to fill in some details during the second playing.	.46
6	In listening to passages, I focus on what I consider to be key words and phrases.	.44
43	I understand the passage even though I do not know a few words.	.43
3	After the passage is played the first time, I use the pause in between the two playings to gather my thoughts concerning the content of the passage.	.40
41	When listening to the passage the second time, I focus chiefly on the portions that I did not understand very well the first time.	.39

Item-total correlation ranged from .59 down to .29. Items 12, 27, and 38 were deleted to increase the coefficient of reliability from .80 to .83.

Factor 3. The pattern of loadings on this factor suggested the title "Recall Notes," to indicate how a subject recalls the contents of a listening comprehension exercise (see Table 5). In this investigation subjects were asked to write a summary in English. To write an English summary of what they heard, people used mental notes, written notes, or a combination of mental and written notes.

Table 5
Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 3
Recall Notes

Item number	Item	Factor Loading
44	As I listen to the passage, I write down key words to help me remember what I heard.	.80
64	I do not take written notes in English during the listening exercise.	.73
66	After I listen to the passage once, I write down key words to assist me in remembering what I heard.	.72
53	In recalling the contents of passages, I use a combination of written and mental notes.	.71
9	I do not make use of a personal system of written notes during listening exercises.	.67
22	During listening comprehension exercises, I listen rather than take notes.	.60
34	I prefer written notes to mental notes.	.50

The item-total correlation for this scale ranged from .74 to .28. Cronbach's Alpha was .85.

Factor 4. "Attention to Form, Self and Others," was the label suggested by the pattern of loadings on this factor (see Table 6). It denotes what a person does not only during a listening comprehension exercise in class, but also other things that students do to comprehend a foreign language. In this instance, the focus appears to be on grammar/form.

Table 6

Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 4
Attention to Form, Self, and Others

Item Number	Item	Factor Loading
15	Function words (determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, and classifiers) are as important as content words (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) in comprehending passages.	.46
39	I make use of verb endings in the foreign language to help me understand the sentence.	.45
33	Only after listening to the passage twice do I attempt to make sense of it.	.39
20	I pay attention (listen) to my teacher as s/he talks to my classmates.	.38
31	I mentally repeat in the target language the main ideas of the passage that I understand.	-.37
37	I do not mentally repeat in the foreign language what I understood in the passage.	-.35
25	I listen to native speakers of the foreign language whenever possible.	.32
14	I listen to my classmates when they give answers in class.	.32
26	It is unnecessary to pay attention to grammar in order to comprehend passages.	.30
18	The quality of the tapes for the listening exercises are good.	.27

The final item total correlations ranged from .41 to .21. The coefficient of reliability was .62 before items 12 and 38 were deleted because of low- item total correlations. Cronbach's Alpha was improved to .67.

Factor 5. The pattern of loadings on this factor suggested the title "Active Participant," to note how much a subject becomes involved in classroom activities, either during a listening comprehension task or otherwise (see Table 7).

Table 7
Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 5
Active Participant

Item Number	Item	Factor Loading
59	When my foreign language teacher asks a classmate a question, I do not make a mental response.	.45
51	During the second playing of the tape, I do not confirm what I understood during the first playing of the tape.	.44
62	During the first playing of the tape (tape will be played twice), understanding the details is more important than getting the essential meaning of the passage.	.42
63	When thinking about the contents of passages, I do not summarize them into my own words.	.42
20	I pay attention (listen) to my teacher as s/he talks to my classmates.	.37
65	I get my thoughts organized by getting the "gist" of the message on the first playing of the tape, and then I attempt to fill in some details during the second playing.	.35
32	Only after listening to the passage twice do I attempt to make sense of it.	.35
7	If I cannot understand the passage the first time, I do not make much of an attempt to comprehend it the second time.	.32
14	I listen to my classmates when they give answers in class.	.32
40	I do not use time words (yesterday, today, tomorrow, etc.) in the foreign language to help me understand the section.	.26

The item-total correlation ranged from .43 down to .28. Cronbach's Alpha was .72.

Factor 6. "Prior Experiences and Language Study," was the label suggested by the pattern of loadings on this factor (see Table 8). It signifies how students refer to their previous background and knowledge to determine what is going on during listening comprehension exercises.

Table 8

Listening Strategy Questionnaire--Factor 6
Prior Experiences and Language Study

Item Number	Item	Factor Loading
61	I try to determine if the content of the passage makes sense in relation to my prior experiences.	.39
56	I have studied another foreign language prior to the one that I am now studying.	.39
68	Having studied another foreign language has helped me to learn how to listen in the target language I am now studying.	.38
21	I compare the content of passages to what I have personally experienced in other foreign language classroom situations or in daily life.	.34
25	I listen to native speakers of the foreign language whenever possible.	.25
54	I do have difficulty relating one sentence to another sentence in the passage.	.25

The item-total correlation for this scale ranged from .43 to .20. The coefficient of reliability was .55.

Table 9
Listening Strategy Questionnaire
Reliability Estimates

Factor Number	Factor Label	Items Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension	#2, 27	.88
2	Focus/Search for Meaning	#12, 27, 38	.83
3	Recall Notes	#24	.85
4	Attention to Form, Self, and Others	#12, 38	.67
5	Active Participant		.72
6	Prior Experiences and Language Study		.55

A summary of the Listening Strategy Questionnaire is contained in Table 9. The items deleted and Cronbach's Alpha are listed for each scale.

This factor solution suggests that variables relating to what students do during listening comprehension exercises can be identified and categorized. In this preliminary investigation of listening strategies on listening comprehension tasks by beginning college Japanese students,

six factors were extracted. These six factors and the variables in each factor should be familiar to second-language instructors as areas to stress to their students in order to develop listening exercises to improve listening proficiency. Students, both successful and unsuccessful in listening comprehension, should be allowed to exchange their strategies (or lack thereof), feelings, and attitudes about this little understood language skill. By determining what students do, fellow students or instructors can perhaps suggest strategies to increase one's listening proficiency.

The six factors found in this study were compared to the various listings of what good-language learners do as reported previously through observations, experience and review of the literature. As mentioned previously, prior listings of learner strategies applied to all of foreign-language learning and not to just one skill area.

When compared to Rubin's seven learner strategies (see pp. 45-45), that were taken from her observations and past experiences, there is a great deal of similarity. In addition, this study's data suggest that successful listeners have a way/method to recall what is heard. Furthermore, the results indicate that foreign-language learners use all the information available to them, including prior foreign-language experience and knowledge of

the world, to determine the meaning of aural stimuli.

When contrasted with Stern's findings (see pp. 47-48), that were again arrived at through observations and past experience, this study's outcome was very comparable. Although Stern had a 10-item list of good language learner strategies, this study was able to reduce successful listening strategies to six factors. Perhaps, Stern's findings contain some overlap that could be reduced through further research.

When compared to the Naiman et al. listing (see pp. 49-50), that was determined through interviews and questionnaires, there is a very strong resemblance. It is interesting to note, however, that in this investigation on listening comprehension, a factor labeled, "Recall Notes" was extracted. Perhaps the manner in which one stores and recalls information in the least understood skill of second-language learning warrants further study.

In comparison to Omaggio's list on successful-language learners (see p. 51), that was developed after a review of literature, there were similarities. The last item in this list (number 7), however, was not replicated in this study.

In reference to Hosenfeld's learning strategies on a language specific task, reading comprehension, the lists are

somewhat comparable; i.e., self-confidence with a task and the ability to get at meaning.

In summary, the findings in this preliminary investigation of listening strategies on listening comprehension task, are similar to the conclusions of Rubin, Stern, Naiman et al., and Omaggio. It must be remembered, however, that the prior studies concerned all the skills covered by language learning and were not focussed on one skill. When compared to Hosenfeld's data from learner strategies on reading comprehension, the six factors extracted from this investigation resembled each other in general. The results from Hosenfeld's report done through interviews were very, very specific when compared to a factor analysis of a questionnaire regarding what students do during listening comprehension tasks.

Discriminant Function Analysis

After a factor analysis was performed on the data from the listening strategy questionnaire, a discriminant function analysis was accomplished using the SPSS manual. Discriminant function analysis was performed on the six extracted factors (independent variables) and the subjects' listening comprehension scores (dependent variable) on six major exams. The purpose of the discriminant function analysis was to determine if successful and unsuccessful listeners on a listening comprehension task were correctly identified, that is, placed in the appropriate group. Successful listeners were classified as 1 while unsuccessful listeners were labeled as 0. If both groups can be identified and determined, then factors that determine successful and unsuccessful strategies can also be defined.

The 18 subjects in the beginning-Japanese course were rank ordered from one to 18 based on the mean of six listening comprehension scores received in nearly two semesters of foreign-language learning. Once rank ordered according to the mean, the subjects were divided in half with the top nine students called successful listeners and the bottom nine students categorized as unsuccessful listeners. The rank order of subjects and their mean percentages were as follows:

Table 10

Means for Japanese Language Students
on Six Listening Comprehension Scores

<u>Group 1</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Group 0</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	90.2	10	71.0
2	86.8	11	70.7
3	79.1	12	70.5
4	78.4	13	67.6
5	75.8	14	66.3
6	75.3	15	57.3
7	75.2	16	56.1
8	74.7	17	46.6
9	<u>72.4</u>	18	<u>45.8</u>
	78.7		61.3

The subject rank-ordered number 11 was omitted from the discriminant function analysis because data regarding this subject was lost. Thus, the discriminant function analysis was performed using nine subjects in the successful listening group and eight subjects in the unsuccessful listening group.

The six extracted factors from the factor analysis were used in a discriminant function analysis to predict whether

or not subjects were properly classified as successful or unsuccessful listeners. Their classification matrix is reported in Table 11.

Table 11

Classification Matrix of Successful and
Unsuccessful Listeners with Six Factors

<u>Actual Group</u>	No. of <u>Cases</u>	Predicted Group Membership	
		<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>
Group 1	9	6 (66.7%)	3 (33.3%)
Group 0	8	2 (25.0%)	6 (75.0%)

The percent of grouped cases correctly classified is 70.6%. The results indicate that seven out of ten students were properly classified. More important, three out of four students can be identified as unsuccessful listeners based on the six factors. Thus, by identifying these students early on during a foreign-language course, teachers can suggest listening strategies to improve students' listening skills.

Because of the exploratory nature of this study into successful and unsuccessful listening strategies in beginning college Japanese students and the low power due to

a low n , the probability level was set at $p < .10$. To determine which of the six extracted factors had the most influence on discriminating successful and unsuccessful listeners, a discriminant function analysis was performed using the factors as independent variables and the mean of six listening comprehension scores as the dependent variable.

Table 12

Wilks' lambda and F -Ratio with
1 and 15 Degrees of Freedom

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Wilks' lambda</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Significance</u>
1	0.67557	7.204	0.0170
2	0.61896	9.234	0.0083
3	0.99969	0.4635E-02	0.9466
4	0.85588	2.526	0.1328
5	0.80095	3.728	0.0726
6	0.98121	0.2873	0.5998

Examination of the discriminant function analysis reveals an F -Ratio significant at the $p < .10$ level on Factors 1, 2 and 5. The factors and their labels are as follows:

Factor 1: Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension

Factor 2: Focus/Search for Meaning

Factor 5: Active Participant

Thus, three of the six factors influenced the discriminant function analysis of successful and unsuccessful listeners.

The chi square procedure for goodness of fit was used to determine the classification of successful listeners (Group 1) and unsuccessful listeners (Group 0). The Yates' correction formula was used for two reasons: the small number of subjects involved and there is only one degree of freedom.

$$x^2 = \sum \frac{[O - E - .5]^2}{E}$$

Table 13 shows the calculation of x^2 for the data in Table 11 using Yates' correction.

Table 13

Calculation of χ^2 for Data in Table 11

	O	E	O-E	$(O-E)/-.5$	$[(O-E)/-.5]^2$	$\frac{[(O-E)/-.5]^2}{E}$
Group 1	6	4.5	1.5	1	1	.22
	3	4.5	1.5	1	1	.22
Group 0	2	4	2	1.5	2.25	.56
	6	4	2	1.5	2.25	.56
						1.56= χ^2
						$p < .25$

The calculated χ^2 of 1.56 is not significant and means that there is one chance in four of observing such a difference through chance alone.

A second discriminant function analysis was run with the three factors that had exceeded the criterion of $p < .10$ for the exploratory nature of this investigation. The second analysis would perhaps identify more clearly the successful and unsuccessful listener. The classification results of the discriminant function analysis with the three factors that indicated the strongest contribution were as follows:

Table 14

Classification Matrix of Successful and
Unsuccessful Listeners with Three Factors

<u>Actual Group</u>	No. of <u>Cases</u>	Predicted Group Members	
		<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>
Group 1	9	7 (77.8%)	2 (22.2%)
Group 0	8	2 (25.0%)	6 (75.0%)

This time, 76.5% of the grouped cases were correctly classified.

The chi square procedure for goodness of fit was utilized again to determine the classification of listeners into two groups, successful and unsuccessful. See Table 15.

Table 15

Calculation of χ^2 for Data in Table 14

	O	E	O-E	/O-E/- .5	[/O-E/- .5] ²	$\frac{[/O-E/- .5]^2}{E}$
Group 1	7	4.5	2.5	2	4	.89
	2	4.5	2.5	2	4	.89
Group 0	2	4	2	1.5	2.25	.56
	6	4	2	1.5	2.25	.56
						2.90= χ^2
						p<.10

The calculated χ^2 of 2.90 is significant at the p<.10 level and means that there is one chance in ten of observing such an occurrence through chance alone. It is interesting to note that the three factors which exceeded the criterion in the study improve the chance of identifying successful and unsuccessful listeners by two and a half times.

In this little known area of the highly complex skill called listening comprehension, perhaps one can afford to incorrectly label one out of every 10 students as a successful or unsuccessful listener when in reality he is not. Those students identified as an unsuccessful listener especially, could benefit from the suggestions of other students and their instructor on how to improve their

listening comprehension skill.

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Table 16 depicts the correlations of the six composite scales based on the six factors extracted in this study and the student's vocabulary knowledge as demonstrated by his or her vocabulary scores. The factor analysis in this investigation was based on the responses of 802 subjects. After the factor analysis was performed and a terminal solution was obtained, composite scales were determined to "represent the theoretical dimensions associated with the respective factors" (Nie et al., 1975, p. 487). Composite scales were determined by using the factor score formula in the SPSS manual. Once the factor score was established for each Japanese student, it was then correlated with the student's vocabulary scores (12 tests were administered during Japanese 131 and 132).

5

5

5

i

2

!

D

2

1

The results indicate that S1 or Factor 1 (Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension) is correlated with S2 or Factor 2 (Focus/Search for Meaning), with S4 or Factor 4 (Attention to Form, Self, and Others) with S5 or Factor 5 (Active Participant), with S6 or Factor 6 (Prior Experiences and Language Study), and finally, with vocabulary performance. S2 or Factor 2 (Focus/Search for Meaning) is correlated with S4 or Factor 4 (Attention to Form, Self, and Others), with S5 or Factor 5 (Active Participant), and with S6 or Factor 6 (Prior Experiences and Language Study). S3 or Factor 3 (Recall Notes) is not correlated significantly with any of the other factors. S4 or Factor 4 (Attention to Form, Self and Others) is correlated with S2 or Factor 2 (Focus/Search for Meaning), with S5 or Factor 5 (Active Participant), and with S6 or Factor 6 (Prior Experiences and Language Study), and with performance scores on vocabulary quizzes. S5 or Factor 5 (Active Participation) is correlated with S4 or Factor 4 (Attention to Form, Self, and Others) and with S6 or Factor 6 (Prior Experiences and Language Study). S6 or Factor 6 (Prior Experiences and Languages Study) is correlated with the five other factors but not with performance on vocabulary tests. Finally, knowledge of vocabulary is correlated with Factors 1 and 4.

Summary

This chapter analyzed student responses to a questionnaire on listening strategy by using factor analysis and a discriminant function analysis. Six factors were extracted in this study of which three were found to be significant at the $p < .10$ level in identifying successful and unsuccessful listeners in beginning college Japanese students: Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension, Focus/Search for Meaning, and Active Participant.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This research was conducted as a preliminary investigation into the listening strategies of successful and unsuccessful students in beginning college Japanese. Six hypotheses were advanced and tested with each being rejected or accepted as indicated:

Hypothesis 1: Foreign-language learners (college-level) can ascertain and relate the listening strategies they use on a listening comprehension task commonly used in foreign-language classrooms.

Based upon the interviews and oral responses of 13 college-level Japanese-language students during the first study, Hypothesis 1 is accepted. Students varied in their ability to describe their listening strategies. Some students were very talkative while others were not. In addition, some students provided detailed descriptions of what they do while others were very general. Not one of them said, "I will not cooperate with you," or "I cannot tell you what I do." In fact, every subject was willing to discuss

his or her perceived listening strategies. It must be remembered, however, that the replies of the informants were based on the questions posed by the investigator. The findings in this study are limited to the extent that this ethnographic interviewer omitted asking questions that could have revealed data pertinent to this preliminary investigation into the successful and unsuccessful listening strategies of beginning college Japanese students. Perhaps, this is an indication of what can be done in foreign language classrooms--the sharing of listening strategies among students as well as suggestions made by the teacher.

Hypothesis 2: An interview procedure can be developed to determine students' listening strategies in a listening task.

The self-report data elicited from the interview procedures, developed during the first study and used in the second study to gather students' listening strategies, support the second hypothesis. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

Hypothesis 3: A questionnaire on listening strategy can be produced to identify factors involved in listening comprehension tasks.

AD-A143 247

A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY INTO THE SUCCESSFUL AND
UNSUCCESSFUL LISTENING STRA. (U) AIR FORCE INST OF TECH
WRIGHT-PATTERSON AFB OH J N FUJITA 1984

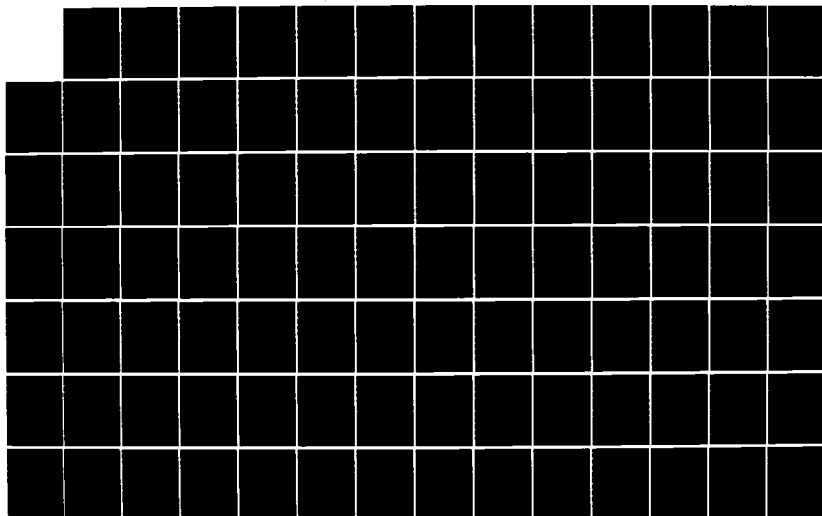
3/4

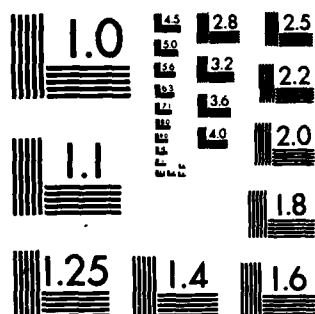
UNCLASSIFIED

AFIT/CI/NR-84-21D

F/G 5/10

NL





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

The factor analysis of the Listening Strategy Questionnaire (Chapter V) suggests six factors: (1) Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension; (2) Focus/Search for Meaning, (3) Recall Notes-mental and/or written; (4) Attention to Form, Self, and Others; (5) Active Participant; and (6) Prior Experiences and Language Study.

A discriminant function analysis was performed on the above six factors to determine which factors discriminate the successful and unsuccessful listener. The data seem to indicate that Self-Confidence in Listening Comprehension, Focus/Search for Meaning, and Active Participant was significant at the $p < .10$ level.

Based on the evidence from both the factor analysis and the discriminant function analysis, Hypothesis 3 is accepted.

Hypothesis 4: The self-report data will reveal that successful and unsuccessful listeners utilize different listening strategies in listening comprehension tasks.

The listening strategies of successful and unsuccessful listeners are different, even before the listening comprehension task commences to during the first and second reading of the passage. On the basis of the varied listening strategies between the two groups of listeners (see the

Listening Strategy Checklist), Hypothesis 4 is accepted.

Hypothesis 5: The questionnaire and self-report data will reveal that a majority of the students translate the narration into English when understanding the passage is a condition for correct understanding.

The responses in the questionnaire and the verbal protocols during the interview indicate that a significant number of students translate when asked to write an English summary of what they hear in the target language.

The self-report data revealed that everyone translates and many people take notes--either mentally or written or both. It appears that the successful student is able to translate faster than the unsuccessful student. In addition, it seems that both successful and unsuccessful students tend not to translate common or familiar sentences. Instead, they translate what they consider to be difficult sentences. Because a significant number of students do translate, Hypothesis 5 is accepted.

Hypothesis 6: The self-report data will reveal that listening comprehension tasks of this nature create negative attitudes toward learning a foreign language in a significant proportion of students.

Virtually all students see the need for listening comprehension tasks in the foreign-language classroom. The successful and unsuccessful students, however, are pretty much divided on the way they feel about them. The former like them and would indeed like to have more because they see a practical need for them while the latter do not care for them. In many cases, the unsuccessful students have tried different strategies and thought about how to improve their listening comprehension but to no avail. They end up doing what is inefficient and ineffective because it's easy. They do not know what else to do or to whom to turn.

Based on the responses of the subjects, especially the successful students, Hypothesis 6 is rejected.

Conclusions

As previously mentioned in the review of literature, there are several models of listening comprehension based on research of native language comprehension (Frederiksen, 1975, 1977; Lindsay & Norman, 1977; Clark & Clark, 1977). If the results of this preliminary investigation of successful and unsuccessful listening strategies of beginning college Japanese students were compared to those models, the unsuccessful students would not fit into any of the three models, even in the lower-order portion that concerns

syntactical knowledge.

Unsuccessful students cannot attend to meaning and form simultaneously in listening comprehension. In fact, they try to attend to only the former and even then, can only do adequately at best. If indeed comprehension does fit into these models, then our poor students truly need assistance, and especially empathy and understanding.

Perhaps the foreign-language education profession has assumed too much for the beginning-language student and the development of the listening comprehension skill. Maybe, it is time to return to the basics or what Valette (1977, p.74) calls, "discrimination of sounds, understanding of specific elements, and overall comprehension." Then, we can progress to a sentence or two, three, four, etc., before we attempt to assess listening proficiency. What is needed is more practice of this highly complex skill.

Only as more information/data is gathered on successful listening techniques, "can we begin to develop more practical workable activities that can help poor learners overcome their language learning difficulties" (Omaggio, 1978, p. 3). It is wrong to assume that the listening comprehension skill will develop automatically. It must be developed slowly. The answer to better listening comprehension skills may not

be slower tapes but in informing students about what successful ones do prior to the playing of the tape, what they do during the first playing, the second playing, et cetera. This preliminary inquiry into unsuccessful listening strategies of beginning college Japanese students suggests that our students should be viewed as possessing successful or unsuccessful listening strategies and not as being successful or unsuccessful foreign-language students.

Recommendations for Further Research

Foreign-language researchers should:

1. Validate the think-aloud procedure with students in other foreign languages to determine listening strategies, attitudes, et cetera.
2. Refine and use the Listening Strategy Questionnaire with other foreign-language students.
3. Determine if either the think-aloud procedure or the Listening Strategy Questionnaire is more effective and efficient in assessing a student's listening strategy.

4. Conduct research on listening strategies using other types of listening exercises: taped listening exercise in a dialogue format, use of visual(s), videotape, or videodisc.
5. Refine research on the contemplative (Hosenfeld's introspection) aspect of the think-aloud technique with listening comprehension.
6. Investigate the short- and long-term effects of an attitude towards a task, use of learning strategies, and success or lack thereof.
7. Develop instructional procedures to share successful learning strategies among students.
8. Continue studies of learning strategies to obtain more information on how students go about doing what we ask them to do so that the foreign-language teacher can become a better facilitator of learning.
9. Conduct further investigations at various instructional and/or learning levels.
10. Describe the learning strategies that successful and unsuccessful foreign-language learners use in developing their reading, writing, and speaking skills.

11. Develop a coding system for listening strategies to identify potential problems in developing the listening proficiency.
12. Refine the think-aloud procedure for different second-language learning skills to improve our understanding of student learning--those that are successful and unsuccessful.
13. Determine the validity and reliability of the think-aloud technique in assessing student learning strategies.
14. Study the existence of learning strategies of an individual or group of students (successful unsuccessful) in the different language learning skills.
15. Explore the effects of disseminating learning strategies (i.e., successful listening strategies) to unsuccessful students.
16. Develop listening comprehension exercises to improve listening proficiency at various developmental stages of second-language learning.
17. Describe the relationship between current theoretical models of listening comprehension and the self-reported listening strategies of students.

18. Investigate the relationship between reading the listening strategies of second-language learner.
19. Study the relationship and effect between various testing procedures for listening comprehension (multiple-choice, general versus specific questions, writing a summary in English, writing an answer in the target language, previewing questions, etc.) and the listening strategies employed.
20. Investigate students' responses towards their self-report data and the results of the Listening Strategy Questionnaire.

The interview and the questionnaire employed in this study were both very useful and necessary in determining what students do to comprehend listening passages. The verbal protocols from the interviews provided detailed attitudes, feelings, techniques, etc. for each subject whereas the questionnaire was used to identify and quantify factors involved in listening comprehension from a large student population. The six factors extracted were not as specific when compared to the interviews but were very comparable to previous information gathered through observations, experience, and review of the literature. There

appears to be a definite need for both types of instruments in order to better understand what students are doing to complete various second-language tasks.

This preliminary inquiry into the successful and unsuccessful listening strategies of beginning college Japanese students revealed that there are listening strategies as well as various students' attitudes toward language exercises which must be considered. This dissertation was inspired by Hosenfeld's work on reading-grammar and reading strategies. Perhaps, others will be inclined to do more research into students' learning strategies to better understand the role of the student and his or her strategies in the teaching-learning process.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Agard, F. B. & Dunkel, H. B. (1948). An investigation of second-language teaching. Boston: Ginn.
- Allen, E. D. & Valette, R. M. (1977). Classroom techniques: Foreign languages and English as a second language. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Angelis, P. J. (1973). The importance and diversity of aural comprehension training. The Modern Language Journal, 57 (3), 102-106.
- Azrin, H. H. (1977). A strategy for applied research: Learning based but outcome oriented. American Psychologist, 32 (2), 140-149.
- Ausubel, D. P., Novak, J. D., & Henesian, H. (1978). Educational psychology: A cognitive approach. (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Belasco, Simon. (1971). C'est La Guerre? or Can cognition and verbal behavior co-exist in second language learning. In R. C. Lugton & C. H. Heinle (Eds.), Toward a cognitive approach to second language acquisition (pp. 191-230). Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.
- Benson, P. C. & Hjelt, C. (1978). Listening comprehension: A prerequisite to communication. The Modern Language Journal, 62 (3), 85-89.
- Bever, T. (1970). The cognitive basis for linguistic structures. In J. R. Hayes (Ed.), Cognition and the development of language (pp. 279-352). New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Bialystok, E. (1981). The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. The Modern Language Journal, 65 (1), 24-35.

- Birckbichler, D. W. & Omaggio, A. C. (1978). Diagnosing and responding to individual learner needs. The Modern Language Journal, 62 (7), 336-345.
- Bird, D. E. (1953). Teaching listening comprehension. Journal of Communication, 3, 127-130.
- Birkmaier, E. M. (1973). Research on teaching foreign languages. In R. M. W. Travers (Ed.), Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (pp. 1280-1302). Chicago: Rand McNally and Company.
- Bloom, B. S. & Broder, L. J. (1950). Problem-solving processes of college students. Supplementary Educational Monographs, 73. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (1982). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bransford, J. D., Barclay, J. R., & Franks, J. J. (1972). Sentence memory: A constructive versus interpretive approach. Cognitive Psychology, 3, 193-209.
- Bransford, J. D. & Franks, J. J. (1971). The abstraction of linguistic ideas. Cognitive Psychology, 2, 331-350.
- Bransford, J. D. & Johnson, M. K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 11, 717-726.
- Bransford, J. D. & Johnson, M. K. (1973). Considerations of some problems of comprehension. In W. G. Chase (Ed.), Visual Information Processing (pp. 383-438). New York: Academic Press.
- Bransford, J. D. & McCarrell, N. S. (1977). A Sketch of a cognitive approach to comprehension: Some thoughts about understanding what it means to comprehend. In P. N. Johnson-Laird & P. C. Watson (Eds.), Thinking: Reading in Cognitive Science (pp. 377-399). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. American Psychologist, 32 (7), 513-531.

- Brown, C. T. (1959). Studies in listening comprehension. Speech Monographs, 26, 288-294.
- Brown, H. D. (1980). Principles of language learning and teaching. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Buswell, G. T. & John, L. Diagnostic Studies in Arithmetic. Supplementary Educational Monographs, 30, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Campbell, D. T. (1974, September). Qualitative knowing in action research. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, New Orleans.
- Carroll, J. B. (1964). Language and Thought. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Carroll, J. B. (1965). The contribution of psychological theory and educational research to the teaching of foreign languages. The Modern Language Journal, 49 (5), 273-281.
- Carroll, J. B. (March 31 to April 3, 1971). Defining language comprehension: Some speculations. Paper presented at the Research Workshop on Language Comprehension and the Acquisition of Knowledge. Quail Roost Conference Center, Durham, NC. ED 057 698.
- Carroll, J. B. (1972). Defining language comprehension: Some speculations. In R. O. Freedle & J. B. Carroll's (Eds.), Language comprehension and the acquisition of Knowledge (p. 1-29). Washington, D.C.: V. H. Winston and Sons.
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. Multivariate Behavior Research, 1 (2), 245-276.
- Chastain, K. (1971). The development of modern-language skills: Theory to practice. Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development Inc.
- Chastain, K. (1976). Developing second-language skills: Theory to practice. (2nd ed.). Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing.

- Chastain, K. & Woerdehoff, F. J. (1968). A methodological study comparing the audio-lingual habit theory and the cognitive-code learning theory. The Modern Language Journal, 52 (5), 268-279.
- Cherry, C. (1957). On Human Communication. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Child, D. (1973). The essentials of factor analysis. (2nd printing). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Clark, H. H. & E. V. Clark. (1977). Psychology and language. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Clark, J. L. D. (1972). Foreign language testing: Theory and Practice. In R. C. Lugton (Ed.), Language and the teacher: A series in applied linguistics, 15. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The Center for Curriculum Development Inc.
- Cohen, A. (1977). Successful second-language speakers: A review of literature. Balshanut Shimushit: The Journal of the Israel Association, 1, 3-21. ED 142 085.
- Cook, V. J. (1977). Second-language learning: A psycholinguistic perspective. Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts, 11 (2), 73-90.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. American Psychologist, 30 (2), 116-127.
- Cronbach, L. J. and Snow, R. E. (1977). Aptitudes and instructional methods. New York: Irvington.
- Devine, T. G. (1978). Listening: What do we know after fifty years of research and theorizing. Journal of Reading, 21 (4), 296-304.
- Disick, R. S. (1975). Individualizing language instruction: strategies and methods. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- DuBois, N. F., Alverson, G. F., & Staley, R. K. (1979). Educational psychology and instructional decisions. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.

- Ervin-Tripp, S. (1970). Structure and process in language acquisition. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), Report on the Twenty-First Annual Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies (pp. 313-353). Washington: Georgetown University Press.
- Faw, H. W. & Waller, T. G. (1976). Mathemaginic behaviours and efficiency in learning from prose materials: review, critique and recommendations. Review of Educational Research, 46 (4), 691-720.
- Filstead, W. J. (1979). Qualitative methods: A needed perspective in evaluation research. In T. A. Cook & C. S. Reichardt (Eds.) Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research (pp. 33-48), Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Finocchiaro, M. (1974). English as a second language: from theory to practice. New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc.
- Flaherty, Sister E. (1979). Rate controlled speech in foreign language education. Foreign Language Annals, 12 (4), 275-280.
- Fodor, J. A., Bever, T. G. & Garrett, M. F. (1974). The psychology of language. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Frechette, E. A. (1976) Directions of research in the 1970s. In G. A. Jarvis (Ed.), An integrative approach to foreign language teaching: Choosing among the options (pp. 351-395). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Frederiksen, C. H. (1975). Effects of context-induced processing operations on semantic information acquired from discourse. Cognitive Psychology, 7 (2), 139-166.
- Frederiksen, C. H. (1977). Semantic processing units in understanding text. In R. O. Freedle (Ed.), Discourse production and comprehension (pp. 57-87). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Freedle, R. O. (1977). Introduction to Vol. 1. In R. O. Freedle (Ed.), Discourse Production and comprehension, Vol. 1 (pp. xv-xix). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

- Friedman, P. G. (1978). Listening processes: Attention, understanding, evaluation. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.
- Gagne, R. M. (1974). Essentials of learning for instruction. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Gagne, R. M. (1977). The conditions of learning. (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Gagne, R. M. & Briggs, L. J. (1979). Principles of instructional design. (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Gay, L. R. (1976). Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.
- Geertz, C. (1973). The interpretation of culture. New York: Basic Books.
- Glaser, B. G. & Strauss, A. L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. New York: Adline Publishing Company.
- Goodlad, J. I., Klein, M., et al. (1970). Behind the classroom door. Worthington, OH: CA Jones.
- Goodman, K. S. (1974). Decoding-from code to what. In J. S. Destefano & S. E. Fox (Eds.), Language and the language arts (pp. 230-237). Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company.
- Grittner, F. M. (1969). Teaching foreign languages. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. ERIC/ECTJ Annual Review Paper.
- Hall, G. E. (1980). Ethnographers and ethnographic data: An iceberg of the First Order for the research manager. Education and Urban Society, 12, 349-365.
- Hinman, L. 1980. The relevance of ethnography for educational research. Unpublished manuscript. The Ohio State University.

- Hosenfeld, C. (1975). The new student role: individual differences and implications for instruction. In G. A. Jarvis (Ed.), Perspective: A New Freedom (pp. 129-167). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1976). Learning about learning: discovering our students' strategies. Foreign Language Annals, 9 (2), 117-129.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1977a). A learning-teaching view of second-language instruction: The learning strategies of second-language learners with reading-grammar tasks. Unpublished doctoral thesis. The Ohio State University.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1977b). A preliminary investigation of the reading strategies of successful and nonsuccessful second language learners. System, 5 (ii), 110-123.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1979a). A learning-teaching view of second language instruction. Foreign Language Annals, 12 (1), 51-54.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1979b). Cindy: A learner in today's foreign language classroom. In W. C. Born (Ed.), The Foreign Language Learner in Today's Classroom Environment (pp. 53-75). Middlebury, VT: Northwest Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Inc.
- Hughes, G. (1974). Aspects of listening comprehension. Audio-Visual Language Journal, 12 (2), 75-79.
- Ianni, F. A. J. & Orr, M. T. (1979). Towards a rapprochement of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. In T. C. Cook & C. S. Reichardt (Eds.), Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research (pp. 87-98). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Irvin, C. E. (1953). Evaluating a training program in listening for college freshmen. The School Review, 61, 25-29.

- Jakobovits, L. A. (1970). Foreign language learning: A psycholinguistic analysis of the issues. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Jakobovits, L. A. (1971). Foreign Language Learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.
- Jakobovits, L. A. (1972). Physiology and psychology of second language learning. In E. M. Birkmaier (Ed.), Foreign Language Education: An Overview (pp. 181-227). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Jarvis, G. A. & Omaggio, A. C. (1976). Introduction: Teachers, options, and the future. In G. A. Jarvis (Ed.), An integrative approach to foreign language teaching: Choosing among the options (pp. 1-7). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Johnson, M. K., Bransford, J. D. & Soloman, S. (1973). Memory for tacit implications of sentences. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 98, 203-205.
- Johnson, N. K. & Gardner, C. H. (1980). Toward a prototype for training classroom ethnographers. Education and Urban Society, 12, 367-382.
- Kennedy, G. D. (1973). Conditions for language learning. In J. W. Oller, Jr. & J. C. Richards (Eds.), Focus on the learner: Pragmatic perspectives for the language teacher (pp. 66-80). Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1973). Foundations of behavioral research. (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Kounin, J. S. (1977, April). Some ecological dimensions of school settings. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, NY.
- Landry, D. L. (1974). The neglect of listening. In J. S. Destefano & S. E. Fox (Eds.), Language and the Language Arts (pp. 71-79). Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company.
- Lange, D. L. (1972). Methods. In E. M. Birkmaier (Ed.), Foreign language education: An overview (pp. 281-310). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.

- Lett, J. A., Jr. (1976). The relationship of foreign language study to closemindedness and ethnocentrism among selected secondary school students. Unpublished doctoral thesis, The Ohio State University.
- Likert, R. (1932). A technique for measurement of attitudes. Archives of Psychology, 140.
- Lindsay, P. H. & Norman, D. A. (1977). Human in processing: An introduction to psychology. (2nd ed.). New York: Academic Press.
- Lofland, J. (1971). Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc.
- Melvin, B. S. (1978, November). Learner strategies in listening. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, NY.
- Mueller, G. A. (1979). The effects of a contextual visual on recall measures of listening comprehension in beginning college German. Unpublished doctoral thesis. The Ohio State University.
- Mueller, T. (1974). Another look at how to teach listening and reading comprehension. The Modern Language Journal, 58 (1-2), 19-23.
- Naiman, N., Frohlich, M., Stern, H. H. and Todesco, A. (1978). The Good Language Learner. Ontario, Canada. The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Neff, R. J. (1978). The effects of temporal spacing in listening comprehension practice of beginning Spanish students. Unpublished doctoral thesis. The Ohio State University.
- Neisser, U. (1967). Cognitive Psychology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crafts.
- Neisser, U. (1976). Cognition and Reality. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Nichols, R. G. (1949). Teaching of listening. Chicago Schools Journal, 30, 273-278.

- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., Bent, D. H. (1975). Statistical package for the social sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric Theory. (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Company.
- Omaggio, A. C. (1978). Successful language learners: What do we know about them? ERIC/CLL News Bulletin. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Pimsleur, P., Hancock, C. & Furey, P. (1977). Speech rate and listening comprehension. In M. Burt, H. Dulay & M. Finocchiaro (Eds.), Viewpoints on English as a second language (pp. 27-34). New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc.
- Quinn, T. & Wheeler, J. (1975). Listening comprehension in the foreign language classroom. CAL-ERIC/CLL Series on Language and Linguistics, 16, Arlington, VA. ED 104 176.
- Rankin, P. T. (1930). Listening ability: Its importance, measurement and development. Chicago Schools Journal, 12, 177-179.
- Reichardt, C. S. & Cook, T. C. (1979). Beyond qualitative versus quantitative methods. In T. A. Cook & C. S. Reichardt (Eds.), Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research, (pp. 7-32). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Reiss, Mary-Ann. (1981). Helping the unsuccessful learner. The Modern Language Journal, 65 (2), 121-128.
- Rist, R. C. (1977). On the relations among education research paradigms: From disdain to detente. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 8, 42-48.
- Rist, R. C. (1980). Blitzkrieg ethnography: On the transformation of a method into a movement. Educational Researcher, 9 (2), 8-10.
- Rivers, W. M. (1968). Teaching foreign language skills. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

- Rivers, W. M. (1971). Teaching foreign language skills. (4th impression). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Rivers, W. M. (1976). Speaking in many tongues: Essays in foreign-language teaching. (2nd ed.). Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.
- Rivers, W. M. & Temperley, M. S. (1978). A practical guide to the teaching of English as a second foreign language. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'good language learner' can teach us. TESOL Quarterly, 9 (1), 41-51.
- Ruby, J. (1980). Exposing yourself: Reflexivity, anthropology, and film. Semitica, 30, 153-179.
- Rummel, R. J. (1977). Applied Factor Analysis. (3rd printing). Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.
- Scriven, M. (1972). Objectivity and subjectivity in educational research. In L. G. Thomas (Ed.), Philosophical Redirection of Educational Research (pp. 94-142). 71st yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Sherer, G. A. C. and Wertheimer, M. (1964). A psycholinguistic experiment in foreign-language teaching. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Smith, F. W. (1970). Language learning laboratory. In D. L. Lange (Ed.), The Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education, Vol. 2 (pp. 191-237). Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc.
- Smith, F. (1975a). Comprehension and learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Smith, F. (1975b). Comprehension and learning: A conceptual framework for teachers. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.
- Spradley, J. P. (1979). The ethnographic interview. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

- Spradley, J. P. (1980). Participant Observation. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Stern, H. H. (1973). Psycholinguistics and second language teaching. In J. W. Oller, Jr., & J. C. Richards (Eds.), Focus on the learner: Pragmatic perspectives for the language teacher (pp. 16-28) Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.
- Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? Canadian Modern Language Review, 31 (4), 304-318.
- Strasheim, L. (1969). Where from here. The Modern Language Journal, 53 (7), 493-497.
- Taylor, S. E. (1973). Listening. Washington D.C.: National Educational Association.
- Tikunoff, W. J. & Ward, B. A. (1980). Conducting naturalistic research on teaching: Some procedural considerations. Education and Urban Society, 12 (3), 263-290.
- Uehara, T. & Kiyose, G. N. (1974). The Fundamentals of Japanese. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Valette, R. M. (1977). Modern Language Testing. (2nd ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Warriner, H. P. (1971). A critical evaluation of the foreign language methods component of teacher education. Unpublished doctoral thesis. The Ohio State University.
- Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language. (1978). (2nd college ed.). U.S.A.: Williams Collins + World Publishing Co., Inc.
- Wilson, S. (1977). The use of ethnographic techniques in educational research. Review of Educational Research, 47 (1), 245-265.
- Young, J. & Nakajima, K. (1978). Learn Japanese: College text, Vol. I (11th printing). Honolulu, Hawaii: The University Press of Hawaii.

Young, J. & Nakajima, K. (1972). Learn Japanese: College
text, Vol II (5th printing). Honolulu, Hawaii: The
University Press of Hawaii.

APPENDIX A
MATERIALS USED IN
THE FIRST STUDY

PLEASE TYPE

REVIEW OF RESEARCH, DEVELOPMENT, OR
RELATED ACTIVITIES INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

SUMMARY SHEET

PROTOCOL NO. _____

(USE CONTINUATION PAGES AS NECESSARY)

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR(S): Dr. Edward D. Allen James N. Fujita
 (IF GRADUATE STUDENT, LIST ADVISER'S NAME FIRST)
Foreign Language Education College of Education
 (DEPARTMENT & COLLEGE)
238 Arps Hall 422-8071
 (FACULTY MEMBER'S CAMPUS MAILING ADDRESS & PHONE EXTENSION)

PROTOCOL TITLE (INCLUDE PROPOSAL TITLE FOR EXTERNALLY-FUNDED ACTIVITIES IF THE TITLE IS DIFFERENT FROM THE PROTOCOL TITLE):

A Preliminary Inquiry into the Learning Strategies of Successful and
Nonsuccessful Second Language Listeners in Beginning College Japanese.

WHEN SUBMITTING A PROPOSAL TO THE BEHAVIORAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW COMMITTEE, WE WOULD APPRECIATE YOUR SUPPLYING THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IN SUMMARY FORM. HAVING THESE DETAILS PRIOR TO READING AND REVIEWING THE PROTOCOL CAN EXPEDITE THE PROCESS. PLEASE BE AS SPECIFIC AS POSSIBLE SUCH THAT THE READER CAN HAVE A RATHER COMPLETE AND ACCURATE IDEA OF EXACTLY WHAT YOUR SUBJECTS WILL EXPERIENCE WHEN THEY PARTICIPATE IN YOUR RESEARCH, AS WELL AS KNOW THE PROTECTIONS THAT HAVE BEEN INCLUDED TO SAFEGUARD THE SUBJECT AGAINST ADVERSE CONSEQUENCES (E.G., ARE THEY FREE TO NOT PARTICIPATE IF THEY CHOOSE, DO THEY OR THEIR PARENTS KNOW EXACTLY WHAT THEY ARE GETTING INTO BEFORE THEY ARE COMMITTED TO PARTICIPATE, WILL BOTH THEIR PARTICIPATION AND ANY COLLECTED DATA BE COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL).

- 1) IN A SENTENCE OR TWO, BRIEFLY DESCRIBE WHY THE PROPOSED PROJECT IS OF INTEREST. THE INTENT OF THIS QUESTION IS TO GIVE THE REVIEWER A BRIEF IDEA OF THE BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH.

No literature exists on the subject of learner strategies in listening in foreign language education. The purpose of this proposed project is to elicit from the students their strategies employed in that task.

- 2) BRIEFLY DESCRIBE EACH OF THE DIFFERENT CONDITIONS OR MANIPULATIONS TO BE INCLUDED WITHIN THE STUDY.

All students will experience the same conditions. They will receive a questionnaire of about 50 items to be completed outside of class (in about 15 minutes). In addition, each student will be interviewed (other than the scheduled class period) for approximately 30 to 40 minutes, depending on their ability to self-report. Previous studies with the "think aloud" technique have revealed that individuals vary in their reporting ability. Consequently, some students may take longer to describe their strategies while other students may be able to describe their strategies without any difficulty.

- 3) WHAT IS THE NATURE OF THE MEASURES OR OBSERVATIONS THAT WILL BE TAKEN IN THE STUDY?

Two measures will be utilized: a questionnaire to gather learner's strategies in listening and an interview to further determine the learner's strategies as he actually completes a listening comprehension task.

- 4) IF ANY QUESTIONNAIRES, TESTS, OR OTHER INSTRUMENTS ARE TO BE USED, PLEASE PROVIDE A BRIEF DESCRIPTION AND EITHER INCLUDE A COPY OR INDICATE APPROXIMATELY WHEN A COPY WILL BE SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE FOR REVIEW.

The questionnaire will gather information regarding learner strategies

- 5) WILL THE SUBJECTS ENCOUNTER THE POSSIBILITY OF EITHER PSYCHOLOGICAL, SOCIAL, PHYSICAL OR LEGAL RISK?
☒ YES ☐ NO If so, PLEASE DESCRIBE.

The subjects may feel that they are somewhat unable to describe what goes on in their minds as they do a task. This may bother some subjects to some extent. However, because a grade will not be given to the subjects in this study and the identity of the learners and their learning strategies will be kept confidential from their language instructors, the possibility of psychological, social, physical and legal risk should be at a minimum.

- 6) WILL ANY STRESS BE INVOLVED IN THE STUDY? ☒ YES ☐ NO If so, PLEASE DESCRIBE.

The subject may feel somewhat uncomfortable about his ability to describe his mental processes while listening. With all due respect to the subject, an attempt will be made to determine if the subject has a strategy, and if so, how, when, in what manner, etc., that it is employed.

- 7) WILL THE SUBJECTS BE DECEIVED OR MISLED IN ANY WAY? ☐ YES ☒ NO If so, PLEASE DESCRIBE AND INCLUDE A STATEMENT REGARDING THE NATURE OF THE DEBRIEFING.

- 8) WILL THERE BE ANY PROBING FOR INFORMATION WHICH AN INDIVIDUAL MIGHT CONSIDER TO BE PERSONAL OR SENSITIVE? ☐ YES ☒ NO If so, PLEASE DESCRIBE.

- 9) WILL THE SUBJECTS BE PRESENTED WITH MATERIALS WHICH THEY MIGHT CONSIDER TO BE OFFENSIVE, THREATENING OR DEGRADING? ☐ YES ☒ NO If so, PLEASE DESCRIBE.

- 10) APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME WILL BE DEMANDED OF EACH SUBJECT?

Approximately forty-five minutes to one hour, depending on the subject: fifteen minutes for the questionnaire and 30 to 40 minutes

- 11) WHO WILL BE THE SUBJECTS IN THIS STUDY? HOW WILL THE SUBJECTS FOR THIS STUDY BE SOLICITED OR CONTACTED?

The subjects will be the 16 students currently enrolled in the Japanese 102 course at OSU. The subjects will be contacted by the researcher in class to arrange a time convenient to each student for an interview. As for the questionnaire, the researcher will hand it out on one day and collect it the next day or as soon as possible.

- 12) WHAT STEPS WILL BE TAKEN TO INSURE THAT THE SUBJECT'S PARTICIPATION IS VOLUNTARY? WHAT, IF ANY, INCENTIVES WILL BE OFFERED TO THE SUBJECTS FOR THEIR PARTICIPATION?

Yes, to insure that the subject's participation is voluntary, a statement to that effect will be made by both of the Japanese instructors who teach the class. The students will also be informed that their

- 13) IT IS IMPORTANT THAT A SUBJECT BE INFORMED REGARDING THE GENERAL NATURE OF WHAT HE WILL EXPERIENCE WHEN HE PARTICIPATES IN A STUDY, INCLUDING PARTICULARLY A DESCRIPTION OF ANYTHING HE MIGHT CONSIDER TO BE EITHER UNPLEASANT OR A RISK. PLEASE PROVIDE A STATEMENT REGARDING THE NATURE OF THE INFORMATION WHICH WILL BE PROVIDED TO THE SUBJECT PRIOR TO HIS VOLUNTEERING TO PARTICIPATE.

I cannot foresee any problem areas in regards to what the students may encounter in this study that may adversely affect them. In order to make the subjects aware of the nature of the study, they will be told that "this investigation will be seeking to determine what they do in their minds in order to understand someone speaking a foreign language. By getting at such information, perhaps better listening materials can

- 14) WHAT STEPS HAVE BEEN TAKEN TO INSURE THAT THE SUBJECTS GIVE THEIR CONSENT PRIOR TO PARTICIPATING? Will a WRITTEN CONSENT FORM BE USED? ☒ YES ☐ NO IF SO, PLEASE INCLUDE IT. IF THE SUBJECTS ARE MINORS, WILL THEIR PARENTS' CONSENT BE OBTAINED? ☐ YES ☐ NO IF SO, PLEASE INCLUDE THE FORM AND IF NOT, PLEASE INDICATE WHY NOT.

I will inform the students that they must sign a written consent form in order to participate in this study.

- 15) WILL ANY ASPECT OF THE DATA BE MADE A PART OF ANY PERMANENT RECORD THAT CAN BE IDENTIFIED WITH THE SUBJECT? ☐ YES ☒ NO

- 16) WILL WHETHER OR NOT A SUBJECT PARTICIPATED IN A SPECIFIC EXPERIMENT OR STUDY BE MADE A PART OF ANY PERMANENT RECORD AVAILABLE TO A SUPERVISOR, TEACHER OR EMPLOYER? ☐ YES ☒ NO

- 17) WHAT STEPS WILL BE TAKEN TO INSURE THE CONFIDENTIALITY OF THE DATA?

The names of the participants in the study will be kept confidential by randomly assigning them names when the data is analyzed and summarized.

- 18) IF THERE ARE ANY RISKS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY, ARE THERE ANY OFFSETTING BENEFITS THAT MIGHT ACCRUE TO EITHER THE SUBJECT OR SOCIETY?

Yes, I believe that the subjects can benefit from this study by becoming aware of whether or not they possess a learning strategy while listening. If they lack a strategy, the questions posed in the questionnaire and those asked by the researcher may assist them in developing their own strategy. Furthermore, the foreign language teaching profession may gain some insight into just what the students are doing and how

- 19) WILL ANY DATA FROM FILES OR ARCHIVAL DATA BE USED? ☐ YES ☒ NO

Continuation page

4. on a listening exercise. A copy of the questionnaire will be submitted to the committee for review on February 20, 1980.
10. for the interview.
12. participation or lack of same will not in any way affect their course grade. Due to the low number of available subjects in the J102 course, however, the researcher would like all 16 students or a majority of them to participate. Therefore, the following inducement will be offered: Subjects who participate in the study will have an opportunity to hear a listening comprehension exercise and perhaps improve their listening ability.
13. be developed. Your participation in this study is not mandatory."
18. they complete a listening comprehension activity--successfully or unsuccessfully.

PROTOCOL NO. 80B 070

--THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY--

CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN
SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL RESEARCH

I consent to participating in (or my child's participation in) a study entitled A Preliminary Inquiry into the Learning Strategies of Successful and Nonsuccessful Second-Language Listeners in Beginning College Japanese.

Edward D. Allen has
(Investigator/Project Director or his/her authorized representative)
explained the purpose of the study and procedures to be followed. Possible benefits of the study have been described as have alternative procedures, if such procedures are applicable and available.

I acknowledge that I have had the opportunity to obtain additional information regarding the study and that any questions I have raised have been answered to my full satisfaction. Further, I understand that I am (my child is) free to withdraw consent at any time and to discontinue participation in the study without prejudice to me (my child). The information obtained from me (my child) will remain confidential and anonymous unless I specifically agree otherwise.

Finally, I acknowledge that I have read and fully understand the consent form. I have signed it freely and voluntarily and understand a copy is available upon request.

Date: _____ Signed: _____
(Participant)

Edward D. Allen
(Investigator/Project Director or
Authorized Representative)

(Person Authorized to Consent
for Participant - If Required)

PA-027 (2/79) -- To be used only in connection with social and behavioral research for which an OSU Human Subject Review Committee has determined that the research poses no risk to participants.

Oral Presentation to Subjects

The purpose of this study is to determine your style of comprehending listening materials in the Japanese-language classroom. Although grades will not be awarded or recorded for your participation in this investigation, please do your best so the information that is gathered can be used to determine what you do in order to understand what you hear. Your participation in this research is not mandatory. Indicate your willingness to take part in this inquiry by signing the consent form.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Name: _____ Major: _____
2. Age: _____ Sex: M F Grade: _____
3. Place of Birth: _____
4. Native Language: _____
5. Length of Stay in U.S.: _____
6. Foreign Language Study

	<u>Foreign Language</u>	<u>Length of Study</u>
a. Elementary School	_____	_____
b. Junior High School	_____	_____
c. High School	_____	_____
d. College	_____	_____
7. Trips Abroad/Visitors/Parents, etc.

	<u>Length of Stay</u>
a. _____	_____
b. _____	_____
c. _____	_____
8. Reasons for studying Japanese: _____

9. How would you classify yourself as a language learner?
 Poor Average Good Excellent
10. How would you classify yourself in understanding spoken Japanese?
 Poor Average Good Excellent

Notes:

English Summary:

English Summary (continuation sheet):

Practice Exercise for the First Study

Watakushi wa Ohayo Shuuritsu Daigaku no sen'sei desu.
Mainichi Nihon'go o gakuseitachi ni oshiete imasu. Kurasu
wa ichiji kara, ichiji gojuppun goro made desu.

Listening ComprehensionExercises for the First Study

Directions: Please listen carefully to the following narration which will be read twice. After the first reading, there will be a five-second pause before the second reading. Then, you will be given five (5) minutes to write in English, as complete a summary as possible of the passage. Now, listen.

Narration #1

Watakushi no namae was Ueda desu. Kinoo Koyama san no uchi e ikimashita. Watakushi wa shichijihan ni okite, juu-ichiji goro Koyama san ni aimashita. Kare no ie wa watakushi no apaato kara chikai desu. Dakara, kuruma de ikimasen deshita. Koyama san no ie wa aokute chiisai desu. Ie no migi niwa kawa ga atte, hidari ni otera ga arimasu. Koyama san no machi wa nigiyaka dewa nakute, totemo shizuka desu. Kinoo no ban wa Koyama san no tokoro de issho ni suteeki o tabemashita.

Narration #2

Watakushi no namae wa Takenaka desu. Watakushi wa Tookyoo Daigaku no yonen'sei desu. Kagaku o sen'koo shite imasu. Rainen Tookyoo Daigaku o sotsugyoo shite, tabun Beikoku no daigakuin e ikimasu. Ima Eigo o yoku ben'kyoo shite imasu. Mukashi chuugakkoo to kotoogakkoo de Eigo o ben'kyoo shimashita. Demo, eigo wa amari oboete imasen. Eigo no ben'kyoo wa totemo muzukashii desu.

Narration #3

Watakushi no namae was Tsuchida desu. Ima Nara no depaato no maneejaa desu. Watakushi no imooto wa Keiko desu. Keiko was ima daigaku no ninen'sei desu. Kinoo imooto to issho ni machi de hon o kaimashita. Soshite, issho ni resutoran de karee raisu o tabemashita. Sorekara, eiga e ikimashita. Kinoo wa totemo omoshirokatta desu.

APPENDIX B
MATERIALS USED IN
THE SECOND STUDY

Purpose and Instructions

Currently I am a graduate student at The Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. I am presently working on a doctoral dissertation to determine your listening strategies on a listening comprehension exercise. I am interested in discovering the mental activities you engage in when you are required to listen to a narration and to write a summary of it in English. Through an interview, I intend to elicit your listening strategies.

My research is concerned with your comprehension process or what you do in your mind and any other things that you may do to assist you in completing the listening task. Let me stress that I am not interested in the correctness of your responses concerning the contents of the listening passage but the steps that you go through to arrive at the meaning of a sentence. Please do your best so that valid information may be gathered about what you do in this type of listening exercise.

Before proceeding further, let me remind you to perform as you normally would in the foreign-language classroom when you are asked to write an English summary of what you hear in Japanese. Are there any questions before we begin?

Practice Exercise for the Second Study

Watakushi wa Kuugun Shikan Daigaku no gaikokugo no
sen'sei desu. Ima soko de Nihon'go to Furan'sugo o
oshiete imasu. Watakushi no shujin mo sono gakkoo de
shigoto o shite imasu.

Listening Comprehension

Exercises for the Second Study

Directions: Please listen carefully to the following narration which will be read twice. After the first reading, there will be a five-second pause before the second reading. Then, you will be given five (5) minutes to write in English, as complete a summary as possible of the passage. Now, listen.

Narrative #1

Watakushi no namae wa Hayashi desu. Kazoku wa minna ima Hokkaido ni sun'de imasu. Mae Tookyoo ni sun'de imashita ga, soko was amari suki ja arimasen deshita. Chichi wa gin'koo de shigoto o shite imasu. Haha wa on'gaku no sen'sei desu. Ane wa byooiin ni tsutomete imasu. Watakushi wa gakusei desu kara, ima hatarite imasen. Demo natsu niwa arubaito o shimasu. Kotoshi mo mata, kameraya de arubaito o shimasu. Watakushi wa rainen no natsuyasumi niwa zehi Yooroppa o ken'butsu shite mitai desu.

Narrative #2

Watakushi no namae wa Nakamura desu. Watakushi no tomodachi wa Buraun san desu. Kinoo Buraun san wa Amerika kara Nihon e kimashita. Kyoo wa Buraun san to issho ni basu de Gin'za e ikimashita. Hajime ni depaato ni hairimashita. Soko de Buraun san no otoosan to okaasan no omiyage o kaimashita. Soshite, shokudoo de hirugohan o tabemashita. Ten'pura wa totemo oishikatta desu. Sorekara, kabuki o mi ni ikimashita. Kabuki wa Nihon no daihyooteki na geijutsu desu. Kyoo wa totemo omoshirokatta desu.

Narrative #3

Watakushi no namae wa Ishii desu. Ima Kyooto Daigaku no san'nensei desu. Watakushi wa gaikokugo no ben'kyoo ga daisuki desu. Dakara, ima Doitsugo to Roshiago o naratte imasu. Kyonen Furan'sugo o naraimashita. Mae Eigo o ben'kyoo shimashita. Sen'shuu hon'ya de Doitsugo no jisho o kaimashita. Sukoshi takakatta n desu ga, Doitsugo no jisho ga itsumo hoshikatta n desu. Demo, Roshiago no wa kaimasen deshita. Kyoo wa toshokan kara Roshiago no o karimashita. Kon'ban tomodachi to issho ni Amerika no eiga o mi ni ikimasu.

Question: Did you do anything prior to listening to this passage?

Successful

R: I basically tried to block everything else out of my head and tried to listen closely. I didn't want to have anything ... any confusing ideas. I ran over some of the words that I've learned previously just to make sure that I could remember it ... any words that might happen to come up.

R: I tried to concentrate on vocabulary because ... that's what I feel is the hardest part right now. I know the sentence structures pretty well ... so to associate those words is pretty easy for me. Most of my preparation is getting my vocabulary out of the back of my mind. I basically try to relax. I find that by relaxing that I think a little better. I'm able to get the words on paper if I have to take notes. My mind is just going blank of everything else and just trying to think about Japanese.

R: I just waited for the tape to come on and tried to get myself rid of all the distractions around if there were any ... so I could listen to it ... what was on the tape. I tell myself that whatever's going to come out of the tape is

going to be Japanese and to try to get ready to listen to it so I could understand it ... instead of ... oh no, its Japanese ... what are they saying!

R: I try to block out everything ... all extraneous noises.

R: I just tried to make sure I wasn't thinking about anything else at the time. I was concentrating on the speaker. I find it a lot easier if I kind of prepare myself and get myself in the frame of mind for listening ... because if I was speaking English ... and then all of a sudden Japanese was said ... it'd just mess me up.

R: When I'm about to listen to something, then I just concentrate on listening. And ... I block everything out ... I just concentrate ... just on listening to the passage and what she's trying to say. Recognizing or maybe thinking about what the words mean ... preparing myself to listening to something in Japanese and maybe looking at how fast the passage will be spoken ... just thinking about those things.

Unsuccessful

R: No. I just sit down, listen to directions and go from there.

R: No. I didn't. I just listened to the directions and let it come. Sometimes I might think about what the passage might be because a lot of the passages seem to all ... I guess because we have a limited vocabulary ... seem to be about the same general stuff ... a lot of them.

R: Yes. I tried to relax myself ... so that way I could better understand because I found out that when I'm tense and nervous, I don't understand as well as when I'm relaxed ... so before I listen to it, I relax myself. I just try and not think of anything except ... the narration that will be coming up. I don't think of anything ... I have a quiz in the next class or anything ... I don't think about it. I just keep my mind blank and open to the narrations.

R: I just made myself aware of the verbs or strange words ... unusual to the dialogue ... more or less like certain places ... whether she went there or not ... who was there or what she did there ... something to that nature. I prepare myself to handle the speed of the recording ... just focus on the key words.

R: No. I just tried to think about all the Japanese words in my vocabulary ... that's about it.

Analysis

Successful listeners are active participants prior to a listening comprehension exercise. They appear to prepare themselves mentally for what is about to occur. Subjects say that they block out distracting thoughts, think about Japanese words (vocabulary) they know, relax, and concentrate on the tape (the speaker) because Japanese is going to be spoken. Good listeners seem to do several, if not, all of these things.

On the other hand, unsuccessful listeners tend to be passive. They seem to react instead of taking a more active role in the language task. They do mention some of the things done by successful listeners. They, however, tend to do only one, maybe two things at the most, before the listening activity. A few subjects simply listen to the directions and then the passage.

It is apparent that successful listeners are more active and better prepared for a listening activity than their unsuccessful classmates. The former do several things before a listening comprehension exercise that their unsuccessful counterparts do not do.

Question: As you listened to this passage the first time, what kinds of things were you trying to do to understand the passage?

Successful

R: I listened to each sentence ... I followed the pattern ... and as each sentence came along, I tried to get the key idea of that sentence, and the next and so on. And then, I linked those together as the story went on.

R: The first thing I tried to get was ... what the passage was mainly about ... just trying to find out what the first thing was ... who or what its about. Then, what they do. And then, later on, how they do it.

R: The first time, I was trying to get a feel of what was going on ... so, I was translating most of the sentences that I could ... I translated and tried to see what the passage is actually about.

R: Well, I was just writing down key facts, key words and then the second time I just tried to pick out the details I missed the first time.

R: I was mainly listening for the main points and not so much the verbs ... just mainly the nouns so that I could pick out certain ... a word. She said Hokkaido ... I listened for Hokkaido and the second time around, I listened for what happens. I take notes during the first playing I write down the noun and instead of having and trying to listen at the same time for the verb ... I listen for the nouns. If I listen for the verbs then ... I kind of mess up when I'm writing ... and then I get mixed up.

R: I tried to pick up phrases that I recognized ... and from my vocabulary I could understand some ... most of the words. And I took notes on those. And, I figured I'd catch the stuff that I missed on the second time around. After I hear a phrase, I try and place it in the context of the rest of the passage and try and put it all together ... so that it all makes sense.

Unsuccessful

R: I was trying to catch key words that I understood and writing them down. I would listen to one sentence and write down what I understood of it and skip the next few sentences. I thought I'd catch them the second time around ... and the words that I understood, I just wrote them down.

R: I was trying to catch words that were emphasized or catch phrases that sounded familiar and I tried to catch the verbs. I remember her stating her name ... Anata no namae wa ... sounded very familiar. I caught the names of the languages, that she went to a university in Kyoto ... that she learned French and studied English ... and that tonight she was going to a movie. That I got on the first time through.

R: I was mainly just listening for the words I understood and stuff ... and trying to put them together to make sense.

R: The first time I didn't take any notes. I just tried to get the pattern of it ... so I wouldn't get mixed up. Because if I start taking notes from the first time, I'd leave off some things ... so the first time I just sit back and just relax and listen to it. That way I could take it all in at one time, instead of piecing it together.

R: It said it was going to be read twice ... so I focused more or less on the places that she went to ... since the person, I knew who it was about on the first sentence ... like France, German ... I focused on that. On the second time around ... I tried to get the verbs and what she did at that place.

R: I was trying to pick up as much of it as I could. And the second time when you played it, I was trying to pick up what I didn't get the first time.

Analysis

All students seek to make sense of what they hear on listening comprehension exercises. The degree of success or failure, however, is apparent when we look at the final result or test score. Successful and unsuccessful students appear to be doing different things the first time a passage is played.

Successful students seek out the topic of the passage, the main ideas, the key facts, are able to follow the train of thought, and use context to understand aural stimuli. The unsuccessful student, however, attempts to understand the passage by seizing upon whatever is familiar, such as key words and phrases. They do not appear to think in terms of a general topic of a passage, its main points and supporting data, or use context to comprehend the passage.

Ineffective students seem to have too narrow a focus--trying to comprehend by picking out only what is familiar to them--when compared to what successful students do.

Question: What about the second playing, what were you doing?

Successful

R: I try to reaffirm my main ideas and make sure that I do have the right ideas ... the way the sentence was meant to be said. I listen to the key words again but I just make sure that I got it right the first time. If it sounds different ... if I hear something different the second time, then I might have to translate over again. On the second time, I'm trying to pick up on any key ideas that I missed the first time and I'm concentrating a little more on sentence patterns like whether the verb was in the past tense or not.

R: There I tried to check my assumptions from the first reading and then I go a little more and try to get a little more of the vocabulary. Then, I look at some of the adjectives and pay attention to time phrases and stuff like that. The first time ... this is not my basic language ... so I'm not really sure of what they said even though I've taken some of it down so I just go back and check the main points and just listen for the key words again like ... subject of the sentence and verb of the sentence.

R: The second time I go back to see if I translated it right ... to make sure that what I had translated is actually what they said. I made sure that what I had translated, I translated it in order instead of skipping something and going on to the next thing ... and coming back to it again ... make sure its in the same order.

R: Just going into more detail ... just gathering the details ... just little things like when she did things, like tonight or what kind of stores she went to. Well, what I picked up the first time, I'm just kind of adding to that. I'm just trying to see ... taking those nouns and seeing what she did with them. I just keep adding to my notes. It just reminds me when I go back and write.

R: I just listen to what I heard the first time and if I understood it ... it just comes into me and I say, "Yeah, I got it." And then I say, "Well, I didn't know what happened next so I'd better pay attention to that." The second time around, I'm thinking about what happened to each of the key words that I picked out of each sentence. The first time I look for a word ... that is like ... I think most of the time it is a noun. But its just something that sticks out in my mind. And, then I go back and try and find out what happens to that word.

R: I'm trying to pick up on the sections which I missed. I have a general idea of what I'm missing. The second time I was going more for details. I was taking notes on more ... detailed notes from the passage.

Unsuccessful

R: I was trying to catch verbs to see whether they were past or present ... how they fit in with the nouns that I wrote down. I just fill in what I didn't have before. The second time, I ignore the sentences I got the first time and try to get the ones that I didn't hear. Since I understood it the first time ... I don't have to concentrate on what that meant.

R: During the second playing, I try to pay more attention to what I know I did miss. I'll remember more or less where words or phrases that I heard came in the reading and I'll try to catch the words in between ... and fill in the spaces that I missed.

R: I never really thought about it but I guess it is. I guess mainly ... I listen for other ... I got the main nouns down ... the big things you know, what's going to mean stuff and then I put down the stuff that's going to relate it together.

R: The second time I was trying to get every sentence ... trying to understand every sentence ... like when she would say one sentence I would try to get more in depth to it then, what she said maybe ... her name was Hayashi san but she could have said something more that, I didn't know. The first time, I could have been concentrating on one thing and the second time when I listen to it, I try and take in the whole sentence.

R: I listen to what I hear the first time. Then, I can understand ... refresh my mind about what I heard the first time but ... I can get more into the dialogue because I know where certain words are going to come up. Therefore, they are not foreign to me ... like the first time around. The second time around, I knew what the passage was generally about. Therefore, I had a little bit ... I took some notes down here ... and as it went through the passage I went down the notes and then I just wrote in like a brief yes or no, went or came, go, study ... just to clarify in my mind ... what happened at that place.

R: Words that are familiar to me ... words that I didn't understand the first time through. The better I understand the words, the faster I can translate it into an English sentence. The second time through I try to tie it all together but the first time through I just try to pick up as

many words as I can. That's why I have to pick up words the second time it's playing because sometimes I do miss a lot trying to translate.

Analysis

Successful students do different things from unsuccessful students during the second playing of a passage. Successful students have several goals in mind, whereas unsuccessful students have a very limited objective.

The former are confirming their main points (what they thought they heard during the first playing), are ready to make some changes, if necessary, seeking out more details and missed ideas, and are attending to verb tense, adjectives, and time phrases. These students not only seek meaning but also use the structure of the language to decipher what is spoken.

Poor students do not often use the second playing to reaffirm what they heard during the first playing. They appear to direct their efforts to what was missed or not understood. In fact, it seems as if they have no strategy other than to fill in the unknown parts of a passage. Again, their focus or emphasis during the second playing of

a passage is quite narrow.

Question: What sort of things do you pay attention to in the sentences in order to understand it?

Successful

R: First of all, it's the subject-verb thing. Well, like I said, if the sentence is still in the same train of thought, the same subject pretty much, then its the descriptive words, the adjectives or adverbs.

R: I guess it's basically getting the vocabulary ... that's the hardest part I have. I listen for nouns and verbs and delete most of the adjectives ... it jumbles up my mind a bit ... just crowds spaces so I just pick out a couple of words that I really know.

R: The verb conjugations I guess ... and what actually was going on where. Most of the stuff ... like make sure it's past tense and like one sentence ... they had two verbs in it. We just learned it a couple of weeks ago and I noticed that in one of the sentences. After I pay attention to the verbs ... the subjects, see how the two fit together.

R: I try to divide up the sentences ... just fact by fact, phrase by phrase ... and then I tie them together on the second reading. I think I hear everything the first time but it's just ... I don't hear the details as much. I basically know what she's doing ... you know the general facts that she's getting at but it's not very clear.

R: Mainly, I'm looking for the word that sticks out which is usually ... the noun and then I look for a word that ... something that happens to it or a word that describes it. And then, I try and keep aware of -sen (a negative marker in Japanese) just in case it's not doing it.

R: The subjects and the verbs ... putting those together ... usually gives you a pretty good understanding. You relate what the subject is doing. Besides the subject and the verb ... the direct object of a verb ... like his father worked in a bank. Or, his mother is a music teacher.

Unsuccessful

R: I listen for the nouns which tell me what they're generally talking about ... and I listen for the endings of verbs to tell me whether they're present or past ... and that's about it. I listen for the noun during the first playing and the verbs during the second playing.

R: I try hard to listen to verbs. I'm not really sure if I can ... the first time through ... usually the nouns stick and if I can just get the ... not the specific form of the verb but whatever the verb is like "go" and not worry about whether its going or gone, I can usually put those together and arrive at some meaning. I try to focus on the verbs but ... it's usually the nouns and adjectives that I recognize ... most easily.

R: When I hear a sentence I can usually remember if I just take down the noun in the sentence or like maybe the verb ... or a main idea like flower viewing or something like that ... if I took that down I can remember that that's what she is going to do ... I don't need to put everything else down so I just put down one thing from each sentence I can usually still ... since it's really fresh I can just go back and say ... I don't know by listening to the little things I can still understand what's going on. So, I guess I do understand what the little things they are saying but I don't have to put them down in my notes to write a summary from it.

R: I pay attention to the key words like watakushi wa ... I am. And like she said she was going to Europe ... so I memorized ikimasu ... that way I know the verbs. From that ... the action ... what's she's going to do ... like go to

Europe. Key words are words that are familiar to me, vocabulary. Like watakushi wa ... I am, sun'de, verb meaning ... to live at a place ... ikimasu ... to go ... like those I could understand what she was saying.

R: The main noun and the verb that was associated with the noun ... telling what happened at the noun or telling what kind of action was taking place at the noun.

R: Mostly the end parts because ... that gives whatever action she's doing. Like she said ... when she said French ... by concentrating on the end, I knew she was studying and I just ... mostly listened to the end part of the sentence. I might not get exactly what she's doing it to but I can get exactly what she was doing. I mainly concentrate on the verb, the action. As for what comes before that, I listen to it and if I can pick up most of it, that's fine but ... like I think I can ... if I get the action she's doing, it's kind of obvious. If I forget the word in front ... that comes before ... I can probably guess at it. I've done that a lot.

Analysis

Successful listeners appear to be able to do more things than unsuccessful ones. Their focus of attention is also much broader. Successful listeners are able to grasp both the subject and the verb in a sentence, see how they relate, get the main ideas, follow the train of thought of the passage, attend to grammar, and listen to adjectives, adverbs, and objects in a sentence.

On the other hand, unsuccessful listeners seem unable to acquire both the subject and verb at once. Thus, they often use an inefficient and ineffective strategy of listening for the nouns during the first playing and the verbs during the second playing or vice versa. Sometimes, they can not get either the noun or verb so they end up guessing. Very few of the unsuccessful listeners talked about following the train of thought of the passage or using grammar, i.e. verb tense, to assist them in comprehension. Also, only one subject in the unsuccessful group spoke about attending to adjectives, and that was only because he was unable to grasp the verbs.

It seems that unsuccessful listeners do not or can not grasp the subject and verb in a sentence and thus, are

unable to get the main idea of it. Because they are often unable to get the gist of a sentence, they cannot follow the train of thought from sentence to sentence and are left to come up with the meaning of the passage by conjecture rather than by comprehension. They appear to concentrate so much on the noun or verb in the sentence that they do not listen for adjectives or adverbs.

Question: How do you get meaning from what you hear in the passage?

Successful

R: First of all, you have to know what the words mean ... remember back from your vocabulary ... and then put them together. I think vocabulary is the key. If you don't know what words mean, you're not going to understand any of it anyway. I listened to each sentence ... I followed the pattern. And, as each sentence came along I tried to get the key ideas of that sentence, and the next and so on. And then, I linked those together as the story went on. I listen for the subject and verb in a sentence. And then, any descriptions. I translate right away. I'll listen to the word ... I listen to the sentence as it goes along but at the same time ... each word, I'll try to translate in my

mind. Two things are going on at the same time. I'm translating the words that I remember, the key words, but at the same time, I'm listening to what the rest of the sentence has to say ... try to pick up on any other key words there ... I'll take down the word that I think is the most important in the sentence.

R: It's basically getting the vocabulary ... the nouns and the verbs ... and deleting most of the adjectives. For me, in translating or even thinking about it (adjectives) ... it jumbles up my mind a bit ... just crowds over spaces ... so I just pick out a couple of words that I really know. I just try to isolate the sentence that has just been read and pull out the words that I need ... but I've gotten used to pulling out the nouns and verbs pretty well now. So as soon as I hear them, within the sentence, I just jot them down and then at the end of the sentence ... I just get ready for the next one. It's getting to the point ... like me understanding English right now ... so I'm able to pull out nouns and verbs after each sentence.

R: I just translated all the stuff in my head ... I take the whole sentence at one time. I see how the verb and the subject ... how the two fit together. I translate the whole sentence into an English equivalent. I do this as the passage goes along. I pay attention to the whole sentence and

see if it makes sense ... because sometimes I translate it and it doesn't make sense. And then, I figure I did something wrong. So, first I try to see if it makes sense. Besides the subject and the verb, I try to pay attention to the adverbs ... or the adjectives, if there are any.

R: I've been exposed to it a lot. I've heard a lot of Japanese, so ... it kind of comes natural. It's tying together the words that I know. As long as I know the vocabulary ... I think that's the most important part for foreign languages. I think I'm able to change what I hear to noun, verb, predicate just by listening to it. I was trying to tie one sentence to another ... tie those facts together ... just trying to logically ... just organize it.

R: I was mainly listening for the main points and not so much the verbs ... just mainly the nouns so that I could pick out certain ... a word. She said Hokkaido ... I listened for Hokkaido and the second time around I listened for what happens. For me it's a lot easier than trying to get everything straight the first time. So, I write down the noun and then instead of having and trying to listen at the same time ... I listen for the nouns. If I listen for the verbs then ... I kind of mess up when I'm writing ... and then I get mixed up. The second time around, I'm thinking about what happened to each of the key words that I

picked out of each sentence.

R: The subject and the verbs. Putting those together ... usually gives you a pretty good understanding. From vocabulary and words that I understand ... I can translate it back into English. And then, from there I understand what the passage is talking about. I translate when I recognize the Japanese word and then it registers an English meaning.

Unsuccessful

R: I try to focus on the verbs but ... it's usually the nouns and adjectives that I recognize ... most easily. I definitely concentrate on the verbs the second time ... but it's only because I catch the nouns the first time. When I piece together the noun and verb it depends on how close the verbs and nouns are to each other. If I can remember a relational, I'll know whether it's a direct object or subject ... or if I can ... remember ... or if the verb is intransitive or transitive ... that will help me out. It gives the sentence some meaning. Then I won't have to decide, if it's an intransitive verb ... then I won't have to decide whether or not if it's a subject or not.

R: I was trying to catch key words that I understood and writing them down. I would listen to one sentence and write

down what I understood of it and skip the next few sentences. I thought I'd catch them the second time around ... and the words that I understood, I just write them down ... they are usually nouns. On the second playing, I was trying to catch the verbs to see whether they were past or present ... how they fit in with the nouns that I wrote down. I listen for the noun during the first playing and the verbs during the second playing. If they say ... if they stick a noun and a verb together ... then I can generally know or realize what they're talking about. It's more or less sort of guessing what they're talking about.

R: I was mainly just listening for the words I understood and stuff ... and trying to put them together to make sense. What I tried to do was to get a general picture of what was going on. I didn't try and understand every single thing that was being said ... but more to try and piece things together to get to know what was mainly happening. I was trying to make the thing I was hearing next, trying to relate it to the one I just heard ... so I was sort of building on what I just heard to make it make sense.

R: First of all the vocabulary words ... I try to understand them first. And then later on, I try and piece them together. It's like I have to depend mostly on vocabulary ... because without that I wouldn't understand. From the

vocabulary words I know, I try and understand that, and later on, I piece them together. But then, that's where I go wrong sometimes because if I don't know vocabulary words I try and think of it ... try and find out what it is but then I kind of get lost and then just forget about the other parts of the passage.

R: The combination of the nouns and verbs together ... the correct combination of both of them. Therefore, I get some kind of foundation of where to start. And, if I know the noun was directly involved with the verb ... then it can be put into my mind as an image. Like if ... for this passage ... like I can see her ... going through all this stuff ... all these activities. More or less, I picture a sequence of what happened according to the dialogue. So, then I combine the nouns and verbs and see her she can't go here and she went there. After that I construct it into a formal sentence where I can understand it in English.

R: Mostly, it's just mental translation ... just translating it into English as soon as I hear it. Familiar words and ... just mostly familiar words that I can tie together into English somehow. I was just ... more or less just trying to tie it together ... tie it all into one cohesive piece I suppose.

Analysis

All students seek to make sense of what they hear. They all agree that vocabulary knowledge is very important because without it, one cannot determine what is being said. In addition, everyone translates and virtually everyone takes short, written notes of key ideas or familiar words. From this point on, however, successful and unsuccessful students differ greatly in what they attempt to do or actually do during a listening comprehension exercise.

Successful listeners try to and are very good at listening to each and every sentence, getting the key idea or main point from it by focusing on the subject and verb (often during the first playing), getting additional information by attending to adjectives and adverbs, following the train of thought and putting each successive sentence into context, and translating from Japanese to English very quickly while the tape is playing. Only one subject from this group said that he listened for nouns during the first playing and verbs during the second playing.

On the other hand, unsuccessful listeners are quite often unable to do even one of the various comprehension activities performed by their successful counterparts. Poor

listeners focus on familiar words, not main ideas. They do not claim to listen to each sentence. Instead, they try to make sense of what they hear by literally "piecing together (guessing)" what little they understand. More often than not, they are unable to get the subject and the verb in a sentence. Their strategy is to listen for the noun during the first playing of the tape and the verb during the second playing. Obviously, they cannot understand every sentence if they use this technique. Therefore, a lot of effort is concentrated on finding the correct subject and verb for each sentence and not being able to do much else such as following the train of thought from one sentence to another or attending to adjectives, adverbs, etc.

Poor listeners are also unable to translate as fast as the good listeners while the tape is playing. In fact, poor listeners often get hung up on a word while the passage continues or they listen to a sentence and skip the next sentence or two. It's almost a minor miracle when a poor listener can comprehend a passage adequately; they are already behind before the tape is even played. And, once the tape is played, they fall even further behind.

It appears that this ability of good listeners to immediately grasp the subject and verb in a sentence might be an important first step in improving listening comprehension of unsuccessful listeners.

Question: Do you take notes during a listening comprehension exercise? How does that help you to remember the passage? When do you take notes?

Successful

R: Yes, I take notes (Nakamura, friend Brown, yesterday, Japan from America, Gin'za bus, department store, parents, lunch, good ten'pura, kabuki, representative, and interesting). I remember the sentences ... well, I'll put down ... Nakamura ... was basically what I remembered from the first sentence ... it said that my name is Nakamura. And I'll take down the word that I think is the most important in that sentence. For instance, like I put down interesting for the last one. I know that I'm still talking about kabuki ... so interesting is all I needed to put down. I've done this pretty much from the start unless its specified not to take notes ... since August ... since I started Japanese. I start taking notes during the first playing and add to it during the second playing.

R: Yes, I take notes ... mostly in English ... I guess I do translate. I can't write Japanese fast enough. I start taking notes during the first playing. Well, I put ... I condense the sentence ... sort of using the key words like in the first part, it said that my name is Ishii ... maybe I'll just put me Ishii san or something like that. It helps me to remind me of what that sentence was about mostly. So I guess its basically my noun-verb system. I've been taking notes as much as I can when we listen to stuff. I find it helps me to get the passage down and it is a regular exercise we have in class.

R: No. I find that when I start taking notes I miss a lot of sentences while I'm taking notes ... because I'm concentrating on writing instead of listening. I've been doing this for the most part from the beginning of the course (Japanese 132--subject validated Japanese 131).

R: Yes. Well, I was just writing down key facts, key words and then the second time I heard them ... I just tried to pick out the details I missed the first time. I start taking notes right away. I'm listening to the whole passage the first time and I'm just writing those key words down I can remember ... basically what I heard. It's just a reminder. I write down the key words about one sentence at a time. Like I'll hear a sentence and I'll just write what

I've heard real quick. I've always done it this way like when I took Spanish and now Japanese ... I found its easier this way for me (subject validated Japanese 131).

R: Yes, I take notes during the first playing. I write down the noun and then instead of having and trying to listen at the same time ... I listen for the nouns. If I listen for the verbs then ... I kind of mess up when I'm writing ... and then I get mixed up. I got ... I just put down Hashi which is ... I remember what the name was ... it's just little scribblings to try and remind me. Then I wrote down Hokkaido, and Tokyo, then I wrote down on'gaku sen'sei, not working and summer, wants to tour Europe. And then I went back and the second time I wrote family and ... amari ja arimasen. I'm not sure what that means really, and then gin'koo and haha for on'gaku sen'sei. This way I don't have to try and keep all of it in my mind at the same time. If I can ... I usually can remember what the sentence sounds like ... and so if I can get a couple of key words then I can usually try and reconstruct the sentence. I started doing this, this year ... when we had ... in Japanese class ... from August.

R: Yes. I tried to pick up phrases that I recognized ... and from my vocabulary I could understand some ... most of the words. And I took notes on those. And I figured I'd

catch the stuff that I missed on the second time around. The second time I was going for more details. I was taking notes on more ... detailed notes from the passage. Then, I lost concentration towards the end. I was taking notes ... I don't know I just got off track. I have Hayashi, Hokkaido, family, Tokyo before, didn't like, father bank work, mother music ... I didn't get to finish that but ... I was intending to write teacher, summer, sight-see Europe. Well, the subject is important ... because you have to know who's doing it. and then the verbs and what they're doing. From that ... that's the basic part of the sentence ... the nouns and the verbs. I've been taking notes since I started Japanese this year (in August).

Unsuccessful

R: Normally, I don't even take notes because I'm usually not asked for a summary. I'm usually asked for specific questions and if I hear it ... and usually from the question I can relate it to something I heard ... a phrase or something. But because it was a summary, I wanted to write down things in some kind of chronological order so that I wouldn't be too confused when I tried to write it. Notes help me in maintaining some kind of order if I'm going to write a summary. It also helps me to keep track of where I

have to fill in when the passage is read the second time. If I can ... I usually don't take notes the second time around. If I can combine something I heard that I wrote down with something I heard the second time around ... it usually helps me a lot. I have Ishii, Kyoto, san'nen, German, Russian ... I have an X by Russian to remind me that she said she didn't do well. I have French and under it I have past to remind me that she learned it before, I have study English and past under that. I wrote down study to differentiate between having taken an English course and learned it or studying it and learning it.

R: Yes, I was trying to catch key words that I understood and writing them down. I would listen to one sentence and write down what I understood of it and skip the next few sentences. I thought I'd catch them the second time around ... and the words that I understood, I just write them down. My notes are her name is Ishii, third year, this year German, learn France, bought a German dictionary, read that one, and borrowed from library. These words help me understand what sequence the things happened in. It helps me understand what the passage is about. When I go through the first time and write down the words, I'm not really concentrating on ... what the context of the passage is, and when I look at my notes ... then I can understand what they are

talking about. I've been taking notes like this since I started taking Japanese.

R: Yes, I jot down key words like Ishii, Kyoto daigaku ... I have foreign language she likes, I put Deutsch and Russia and I put noun next to that after the second time, like I had France and English down, and then after I heard it the second time I put before and now. And then, I put Deutsch dictionary. And then I put expensive. And then I put Russian dictionary and I put that was expensive too, toshokan or library. And I also put down in my notes ... she's going to an American movie tonight with a friend. I never really thought about it but I guess it is. I guess mainly ... I listen for other ... I got the main nouns down ... the big things you know, what's going to mean stuff and then I put down the stuff that's going to relate it together. I usually do that I guess on the second time or if I hear other nouns that I didn't hear the first time. But usually I can get most of the nouns the first time. My notes give me the key ideas of what happened. And then I can put the thing together ... in a couple of sentences after that ... with what I got written down. I've been taking notes ever since I started taking Japanese ... that was about seven or eight months ago.

R: The first time I didn't take any notes. I just tried to get the pattern of it ... so I wouldn't get mixed up. Because if I start taking notes from the first time, I'd leave off some things ... so the first time, I just sit back and just relax and listen to it. That way, I could take it all in at one time ... instead of piecing it together. The second time, I try and get the key words and from those I ... like Tokyo ... when she lived in Tokyo. And kameraya ... where she worked probably. And next year, she'll be going to Europe ... just little summaries. I've just made everything as precise as I can. Because if I wrote so many things I'd forget. Like here I've got these two because I listened during the first time but I got stuck in the middle because I started thinking about her parents. I couldn't understand what she was saying about her parents. I have Hayashi desu, Tokyo, byooiin, kamera, next year Europe. I've been taking notes like this since I started Japanese in August.

R: Yes, the first one is Ishii, the person's name ... three years, foreign, German, France, Eigo ... English, Russian, friend, library. I got other things ... most of these down the second time around ... for what happened there, what kind of characteristics what has ... and those are ... like one year study, no go. I take notes on a straight line so

... kind of like orders my brain in a certain pattern all the way down. To me that's a lot more simpler than writing them across. Then I can expand on sentences going across from the one noun ... more or less with a verb or a whole sentence. I've been doing this since I took Japanese ... our teacher allows us to take notes in class.

R: Yes. I just got the name Ishii and buy German dictionary. My notes really don't help. I don't know ... it's sort of like doodling ... because whenever I start to take notes, I have to think about writing this in English and I miss even more than I do if I try and translate it ... so that's why I don't write too many. I hardly ever take notes. I just try to think of the passage in English and go from there. As soon as I hear it I try and translate it as much of it as I can into English so I think I retain it longer for tests and things like that.

Analysis

Virtually all students take notes during a listening comprehension exercise. Only one student from the successful group did not take notes because she claimed that if she did, she would miss a lot of the passage. This subject validated Japanese 131. The other subjects take notes during the first playing of the tape and add to it during the second playing. They all say that they listen for an important word, key words, key facts, or key phrases from each sentence. Note taking, they claim, assists them to remember what each sentence was about. Four of the five subjects have been taking notes in this manner since the beginning of their Japanese course whereas one subject started his notes taking back in high school.

As for the unsuccessful group, they were mixed in terms of what they do. Half of them take notes, another subject just listens during the first playing and takes notes during the second playing, and two others mainly listen and take but a few notes. Three subjects claimed that note taking helped them to keep track of the sequence or order of events in the passage, another subject said it helps to understand what the passage is about, and only one said that it helps to get the key ideas. One of the subjects who takes notes,

gets a key idea from one sentence and skips the next few sentences, hopefully to attend to them during the second playing. It is interesting to note that not one subject from this group said that they were able to get a key fact or idea from each sentence which the successful subjects claim they do.

Thus, it appears that successful students are able to grasp whatever is important from a passage (i.e. each sentence almost), translate it into English, and make a quick note of it on paper. And, during the second playing of the tape, they continue to add to what they already know. Although unsuccessful students do take notes, it is often from various sentences (though in order) in the passage and is not much help in reminding them of the contents of the passage. Note taking in itself does not appear to provide a clue to comprehension but is more the product of what was processed by the subject. Again, the ability of the good listeners to grasp the key idea from each sentence keeps surfacing.

Question: Did you attempt to understand everything in this passage? Why?

Successful

R: Yes. I think it's important that you have to ... well, it said to give the best summary you can. You have to try to understand as much as you can.

R: I tried to ... most of it. Some of it I just can't catch ... so I wait for the second passage. Usually, I remember about where in the passage I missed ... so that's where I place my emphasis on the second time ... on the parts that I know I missed.

R: Yes. I don't know ... so I'd be more accurate when I finally wrote up what I thought it was about.

R: Yes, I think so.

R: No, I'm trying to pick up each sentence ... the meaning of each sentence instead of like ... each little word.

R: Yes, but I lost concentration and I didn't pick up some of the words ... because to understand every word will give you the full meaning of the passage. I know in Japanese ... there's little words like ... mo (also) maybe ... which has

a big difference in the meaning of the passage.

Unsuccessful

R: No. Usually, when I try to understand everything as it comes ... one word that doesn't exactly ... one word that I can't remember right off ... I'll stick on that trying to remember what it is ... and I'll miss some of the passage ... so that's why, especially the first time around, I try to pick out words that I can recognize easily.

R: No. At the present time, it goes by too fast for me to try and understand everything they're saying.

R: What I tried to do was to get a general picture of what was going on. I didn't try and understand every single thing that was being said ... but more to try and piece things together to get to know what was mainly happening. Like she's going to school and she's taking foreign languages ... what foreign languages she's taking ... and you know like ... when she says the thing about she's going to buy a dictionary ... I'll put that down because that's kind of important ... I guess I just try and take down the main points of what she's saying. I guess maybe each sentence that she's saying, I try and take down the main point in that sentence or something. And like I can usually do

that with a noun because if I put down Ishii, I know that sentence usually means that she's telling me that her name is Ishii ... so I don't have to put the rest of it down.

R: I knew I wouldn't understand everything so I just tried to get ones that I really knew ... so later on I might piece them together and find something else that was there. Like when I got those things from the notes, like key words, and from that ... I put them together.

R: I tend to try and understand everything in the passage ... to get a broad understanding of the whole passage.

R: Yes, just about. There might be some piece of important information I might be leaving out ... if I don't try and understand all of it.

Analysis

Successful students and unsuccessful students appear to have different objectives when trying to comprehend a listening passage in order to write an English summary. The former try to understand the entire passage to write an accurate summary.

The unsuccessful listeners, however, provide several

reasons as to why they do not try to understand everything in the passage: they get hung up on an unknown word and miss some sentences, the tape is too fast, and they try instead to get a general overview of the passage. Thus, poor listeners tend to rely on recognizing familiar words in a passage and must piece together isolated sentences to come up with what the passage is about. Two of the six subjects in this group say that they try to do what their successful counterparts do.

It is clear that good and poor listeners have divergent objectives for listening comprehension exercises. Because good listeners are able to grasp the main ideas from each sentence, they attempt to understand the entire passage. On the other hand, the poor listeners, who are aware of their limitations, seek instead to get what they can and to do the best with what they get.

Question: How important is grammar to you in comprehending what you hear? (What else do you attend to in a sentence?)

Successful

R: That's secondary to understanding the main thought. First of all, you have to know what the passage is talking

about. And then, you can go on with the grammar part ... whether the verb is in the past tense or not ... things like that. I do pay attention to grammar during the first playing a bit. But I get it down as well as possible during the second playing.

R: Only to associate what words ... what verbs with what nouns or what nouns with other words. I found that a few relationals that are really important ... sort of to me like ... the one that points out the nouns, place verbs or time verbs ... I feel that the relationals are the ones that tell what if it's the noun, a verb and to what the relationship is between the two words.

R: Yes ... when I'm listening to the verbs and the subject. I look at whether the verb is in the past tense or whether it's a gerund ... I guess you call them -ing forms ... and that helps me to figure out what the sentence is all about. I skip over relationals most of the time because ... you can't really translate relationals into English equivalents so ... to me it's there to make the sentence make sense in Japanese and ... I don't really need it to translate it into English.

R: I try and keep aware of -sen (negative marker) ... just in case it's not doing it. As for relationals, I don't pay

any attention to it that much ... except for maybe no (possession) because it kind of sticks out.

Unsuccessful

R: If I can remember a relational ... I'll know whether it's a direct object or subject ... or if I can ... remember ... or if the verb is intransitive or transitive ... that will help me out. It gives the sentence some meaning. Then, I won't have to decide, if it's an intransitive verb ... then I won't have to decide whether or not if it's a subject or not. I normally do not pay attention to relationals in a sentence.

R: I was trying to catch the verbs to see whether they were past or present. As for grammar, I wouldn't know if it was wrong or not. I do not listen for relationals.

R: I do not pay very much attention to grammar ... nor relationals.

R: I'm really not that hard on grammar because I just want to try to get the main essence of the message. It doesn't really pay that much attention to my standards ... grammar correctness let's say. As for relationals, I don't really listen to them at all.

Analysis

Successful and unsuccessful listeners seem to have different opinions concerning the use of form to assist in comprehension. Successful listeners say that they attend to form but it is secondary to determining the meaning of the passage. They also claim that they pay attention to grammar in either the first and second reading of the passage or on both occasions. They listen for verb endings which indicate the tense of the verb or whether or not an action did or did not take place.

Unsuccessful listeners generally make no mention of meaning of a passage as being their primary objective. Nor do they pay very much attention to form.

The biggest difference in these two groups appear to be that successful listeners attend to meaning first and form second. In most cases, they are able to do both simultaneously. On the other hand, poor listeners do not seem to use form as an aid to comprehension nor do they set as their main objective, the comprehension of the passage (in its entirety). Instead they seek familiar words and try to logically put the pieces of the puzzle together.

Question: What did you do between the first and second playing of the passage?

Successful

R: I tried to ... I went over the passage in my mind and remembered the parts that were unclear to me. And I tried to concentrate on those parts for the next playing. And then, I also reviewed what I heard on the first playing ... it's just in my head basically. Of course, I'll look at the notes ... that'll make my recall quicker.

R: After the first reading, I looked over the notes again and tried to remember what I missed and what I'm going to need for the second reading. Like ... if I need a few adjectives in the middle of the passage, then that's where I put my concentration. Sometimes I put marks and other times I just remember ... maybe one word in the middle of the passage that I remember is an area that I missed or something.

R: I mentally prepared myself to check over what I thought I heard in the first playing of the tape. I tried to get the passage formulated in my mind ... because I already knew what it was about. And the second time I just went through to clarify what I thought I had heard and to pick up the little adjectives and adverbs that I had left out the first

time.

R: I started ... writing down a few more notes ... that I thought would be important. I lost concentration ... then I had to get ready to listen to it again.

Unsuccessful

R: I glance up at the notes. Right then, I can start to form some kind of an idea of what the paragraph is about.

R: I'm just saying to myself that I know roughly what they're talking about ... and now, I just have to decide when they're doing it ... and how I guess.

R: I kind of get the background of it ... what she said.

R: I just prepared myself for the second playing ... and I didn't really concentrate on the first and second lines of the second playing because I knew what was happening ... because it was like a basic introduction to it. I quickly reviewed the notes that I took in the first playing and then I concentrated on each part of the notes that I took to get the right happening at the right place ... so I could formulate an English summary.

R: I remember the parts where I had trouble the first time because I can usually remember what sentence it came after where I had the trouble and when it's played through the second time, I sort of forget the sentences that I already knew and try to concentrate on just exactly what they were saying the second time when the other sentences came up that I had trouble with.

Analysis

Successful and unsuccessful listeners are both active participants during the interim of the first and second playings of the tape. As previously mentioned, successful listeners are able to grasp the main point from almost every sentence, whereas poor listeners are not able to do so. After the first playing, successful listeners review their mental or written notes, recall unclear areas, and get ready for the second playing. Because good listeners comprehend more of a passage than their counterparts on the first playing, it's logical to assume that good listeners do not have as many unknowns as compared to the poor listener.

Poor listeners review their notes as well but their comments provide somewhat of an insight as to what they accomplished during the first playing. They say such things as:

I can start to form some kind of an idea of what the paragraph is about, I know roughly what they're talking about, I got the background of it, I got a basic introduction to it, and I remember the parts I had trouble with the first time. Of course, they all say or imply that details and or unknown areas are their main goals for the second playing.

After the first playing of a passage, there is already a distinct difference in what was accomplished by the good listener versus the poor listener. The good listener not only has an idea of what the passage is about, but also the main points or supporting data. On the second playing, the good listener can check his original assumptions and fill in other bits of information. On the other hand, the poor listener has only the gist of the passage after the first playing and seems to depend a lot on gathering more information during the second playing. Because the unsuccessful listener did not comprehend as much during the first playing as the successful counterpart, there is definitely a lot more to accomplish.

Question: When did you begin formulating the ideas for your summary?

Successful

R: I think after the first reading actually. When I put everything ... tried to review everything ... I tried to see how much of a summary I could write at that time ... actually.

R: I guess listening to the first passage ... after I've gotten the first two sentences down, then you never seem to forget what the beginning was about ... then you have a logical order so that you just put the summary together. But I don't think any more about it until after the second reading.

R: It was right after the second reading. I knew I had to start writing it down so I started thinking of what I was going to write down.

R: I guess the first time I heard it ... I had a general idea of what happened. After each sentence, I kind of tried to tie in what she said.

R: I went right along with the dialogue. I listened the first time ... and just tried to gather what she said and

translate it so I could remember it real quick and then I wrote down the stuff. The second time around, I just kind of tried to talk along with it. I got the noun and then I would just say ... and some of the verbs that I did catch the first time ... which weren't too many but ... I just was thinking how they would say it. I was trying to say it along with them. I find that if I put myself in the speaker's place ... then it makes it a little easier.

R: I started right when the first passage started. Well, it said in the instructions that I would have to write a summary ... so from that ... I knew that I would have to comprehend for the most part ... the passage ... and so I wrote down notes which would help me in my summary ... and I guess I didn't really start thinking about the summary until you said you've got five minutes to do the summary.

Unsuccessful

R: At the end of the first reading. Well ... in between the first and second reading I glance up at the notes. Right then, I can start to form some kind of idea of what the paragraph is about. Then as the second one is being read ... that's when I concentrate on the subtleties of what's in there and what I didn't get before.

R: After the first reading. I'm just saying to myself that I know roughly what they're talking about ... and now, I just have to decide when they're doing it ... and how, I guess.

R: As I was going along doing it. Because like I said, I try to build on what I just heard so ... like my name is Ishii ... O.K. ... we're talking about a girl, and then I go to school ... so I say O.K. ... she goes to school and then next I think about what she's going to say. And, I like studying foreign languages ... so I say she's a girl, who goes to school, and she likes to study foreign languages. After I start hearing everything, I start building the summary in another part of my brain while the other part's still writing this other stuff down ... trying to get the notes and stuff and understanding what's going on ... another part is trying to keep it all going in my head.

R: It was after the first reading. I kind of got the background of it ... what she said. And, the second reading I just tried to get more stuff out of it. But it was after the first reading.

R: After the first reading, I quickly reviewed the notes that I took in the first playing and then I concentrated on each part of the notes that I took to get the right

happening at the right place ... so I could formulate an English summary. After the second passage was done, I had all the notes I wanted, plus the fresh memory I had in my mind.

R: As soon as I hear it, the sentence or words that are familiar. I try and translate as much during the first time as I can and the pieces that I leave out or ... I didn't get the first time, I do it the second time ... and then I just try and tie everything together into a sentence.

Analysis

This question did not reveal any information of significance. All listeners think about what they will write in the summary. Some subjects from both the successful and unsuccessful groups begin formulating ideas for a summary as the passage is played during the first reading, others do it after the first playing, and one good listener even did it after the second playing.

It would be beneficial to recall at this time, that after the first reading, good listeners already have much more information gathered from the paragraph than poor listeners. So, it does not seem to matter when a listener

begins to formulate a summary. In either case, both groups are active participants in accomplishing the listening comprehension task. As teachers and facilitators of learning, we must always remember that just because a student does not do well, that student should not be labeled as a poor language learner. Indeed, he is a poor listener but the question is why--what is he doing or not doing to comprehend aural stimuli.

The poor listener provide an insight into what they do during the second playing--they are looking for what actions took place and more details from the passage. Good listeners, in most cases, have already accomplished the former during the first playing.

Question: What did you do to write an English summary of this passage?

R: I looked at my notes this time and I saw the key words. I still remembered what the sentences said from the readings pretty much ... and then I wrote out each sentence from my key words. Like I said, I remember the sentences. I remember what ... whether the person did it at this time or yesterday ... things like that. I use both mental and written notes. I think it was about 80% mental. I try not

to depend on notes. That's just for quicker recall.

R: I looked at the notes. And this passage, I had just about one note for each sentence and I looked at the notes and that word association came back and I remembered what the passage was mostly about. A lot of it comes from my notes. The added stuff I remember in my mind ... like a few adjectives, the way the person spoke, I guess it gives a feeling to the passage.

R: I'm using my memory of what the passage was about. And ... most of the stuff was already translated into English ... so I knew what that was about so I just stuck it on a piece of paper.

R: I just went back to the notes I wrote ... taking the key words and what she did ... the time frame she did it in ... that's basically what I did. I use the words as a reminder. I guess it's kind of like a mnemonic device. I'm using these words just to recall what I heard. I don't know how to explain this.

R: I looked at the words that I wrote up at the top and I just tried to remember what the sentence said ... because I translated it in my mind when I wrote the word down ... sort of. I use my notes to stimulate what's in my mind.

R: I used my written notes ... and some of the other words around these notes that I put down that I could remember ... just from memory of what the passage was talking about. My ratio of mental notes to written notes is about 3:1. Well, I put more or less the main ideas in the written notes ... but I guess ... the mental notes would be more ... just the surrounding words. They might not be as important but there's more of them. So, it's more bits of information.

Unsuccessful

R: Well, I had my notes that were in chronological order ... that helped. And ... I remembered the verbs that went with them. I remembered most of the passage but most of the key words are down on paper.

R: I looked at my notes. I'll write them down but not in as much detail, just one word or two. And then, I'll remember what they said in the passage about it. My ratio for mental versus written notes was about 1:2.

R: I looked at my notes and I just sort of logically pieced it together. From what I remembered what was in my head and what would also make sense. I'd say probably 90% of it is from my notes and 10% is trying to put the other stuff together into a logical thing.

R: I used the words that I memorized in my mind and also from the notes. Like her name was Hayashi so I just put her name as Hayashi. And what I had in the notes was Tokyo so I correlate Tokyo with where she lives so I put she lives in Tokyo. I use written notes. And then something in my head that just tries to put them together ... that's it.

R: I looked back to my notes and then each note that I took had a little special meaning to me. Since I wrote it in a vertical direction ... this is how I pictured in my mind the flow of what I put down ... top being the start and stuff ... and then I remember it going down and stuff. I recall some mental notes too but ... like it happens so quick I don't have time to write them down ... if I did write it down ... I'll lose some part of the next sentence ... so I use some mental notes. I'd say about 80% is written notes and 20% is memory.

R: I translated most of it into English in my head. I don't really use written notes.

Analysis

Subjects in both groups use mental and written notes to aid their recall of sentences in the passage. Of course,

good listeners being able to grasp the main idea of each sentence have more notes (mental and written) and are thus able to use these notes to trigger their recall. Because they have more notes available, they are able to use them to remember more of the passage. Again, key written words and mental notes are usually used to write an English summary.

It is interesting to note that several subjects from the poor listening group mentioned that their notes were taken in order of what happened in the passage, whereas not a single good listener brought it up. Apparently, to the poor listener, having written notes in sequence from the passage is important. Also, several poor listeners said they found it necessary to logically piece together what they had. This information provides an insight into just the kind of dilemma or problem-solving situation that a poor listener faces. Thus, it appears that while the good listener processes information readily, the poor listeners must oftentimes construct (ad lib) something meaningful with what he has, something that makes sense based on what information he pulled out from the passage. This description appears to fit what Lindsay and Norman (1977, p. 488) call "bottom-up" or "data-driven process" because it starts with facts and not the "top-down" or "conceptually- driven process that functions according to what should happen in a situation

based on one's stored knowledge of the world.

Question: How do you normally feel before a listening exercise?

Successful

R: I normally feel comfortable about it. I try to relax myself and just pay attention to what's going on. It's just basically to listen as well as I can.

R: I try to take it like a sort of small quiz ... or I just try to relax and just try to get the vocabulary around and concentrate on that ... because that's what I find is the hardest right now ... because I have to memorize a lot of things. So, vocabulary I guess is my main drawback ... right now.

R: I guess I go, "oh no, here comes another one." As soon as the instructor announces that we're going to have one, everybody's going, "oh no." Sometimes, I guess ... everybody has their off days. On my off day, I don't feel like doing any school work.

R: I try to relax and just tune in on that voice and try to get used to that voice ... because that's my hardest

problem.

R: It all depends on how well I have studied my vocabulary ... because if I studied the vocabulary pretty good and know it ... then I just go ahead and pick out those words and then I try and find out what happens to them.

R: I feel a little bit uncomfortable. Sometimes I have trouble comprehending what the passage is saying. Some of the vocabulary ... that makes me uncomfortable and I have to concentrate pretty hard to pick up as much as I can.

Unsuccessful

R: I usually get a little nervous because I think it's important and I don't always do as well at it as I think I should.

R: Fairly nervous. It goes so fast. If it went really slow I could probably understand but when it starts going fast ... it sort of whips by my head.

R: Normal. I don't get excited or anything ... before a listening exercise. I just say ... listening exercise ... I get my pencil and ... it depends on what kind of exercise it is. I usually start listening for instructions on what to do.

AD-A143 247

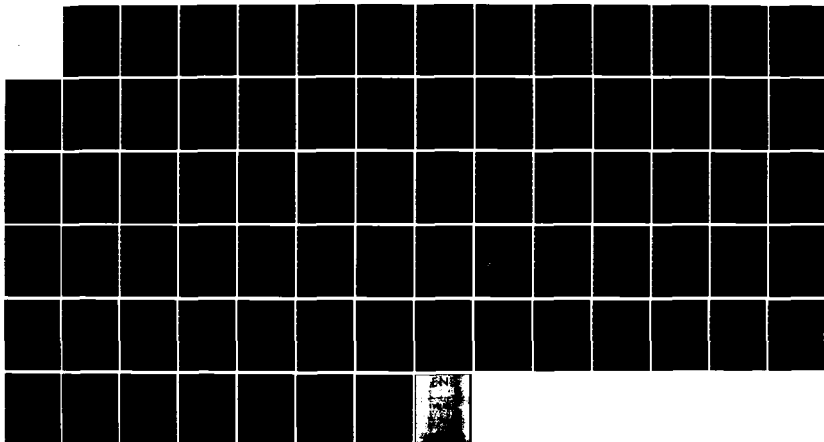
A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY INTO THE SUCCESSFUL AND
UNSUCCESSFUL LISTENING STRA... (U) AIR FORCE INST OF TECH
WRIGHT-PATTERSON AFB OH J N FUJITA 1984
AFIT/CI/NR-84-21D

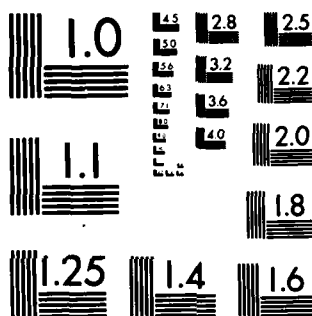
4/4

UNCLASSIFIED

F/G 5/10

NL





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

R: I don't feel like I'm in the mood for it. I don't feel like ... I feel kind of tense a little. I've got to get myself into it. I've got to get into a relaxed state ... maybe take a deep breath, put my body in a certain position because like ... if I put my foot over here ... well, it starts bugging me it might somehow distract my concentration. So, first I have to somehow get my mood or attitude right.

R: A little bit scared of what's going to happen ... more or less the speed of the dialogue. Like the contents of the dialogue I'm pretty familiar with ... because each chapter we have in our book ... is dealt directly with one type of subject matter ... so subject matter is not too foreign to you ... but like what happened where and so forth ... you are a little bit anxious to know what happened.

R: I don't know ... it's not really nervous ... but kind of uncomfortable because as you can probably see, I don't do too well on it. I don't understand too much. Well ... I don't enjoy doing it or ... that's about it.

Analysis

As expected, successful listeners are not as uncomfortable as unsuccessful listeners before a listening exercise. In fact, one subject in the good listener group said that he felt comfortable while another subject claimed that he took it like a small quiz. The subjects in the successful group spoke about such other things as relaxing, paying attention, and concentrating prior to a listening exercise. Two subjects from this group were uncomfortable about this language task.

As for the poor listeners, virtually everyone claimed to be nervous, tense, or scared. Only one subject said that he felt normal and was not excited with a listening task. Other comments included being bothered by the speed of the tape and knowledge that they do not do well on this language task. Not one subject from this group mentioned that he relaxed or concentrated before the listening exercise.

There is definitely a different perspective on listening exercises by successful and unsuccessful listeners. It appears that the latter go into a listening exercise task knowing that they probably will not do well. They also do not appear to get ready for the task which good listeners

tend to do. And, after the listening exercise, they receive their score or grade--probably adequate at best. So, their self-fulfilling prophecy has come true.

Question: Do you prepare yourself prior to a listening exercise?

Successful

R: I try to relax myself and just pay attention to what's going on. It's just basically to listen as well as I can.

R: I try to take it like a sort of small quiz ... or I just try to relax and just try to get the vocabulary around and concentrate on that ... because that's what I find is the hardest right now ... because I have to memorize a lot of things. So, vocabulary I guess is my drawback ... right now.

R: I try to most of the time. I try to make myself prepared to listen to Japanese and to translate it. Most of the time, I'm trying to clear my mind of anything else.

R: I try to relax and tune in on that voice and try to get used to that voice ... because that's my hardest problem. I just try to concentrate on just hearing. I try to tune out

everything the best I can and just listen to that one voice.

R: All I can do is just try and not pay attention to other stuff and concentrate on the words that are coming out of the speaker. I just try and get ready for Japanese to come out.

R: I concentrate. I kind of prep myself to get ready ... to listen to something spoken in Japanese which I don't usually hear every day.

Unsuccessful

R: Yes, I try to ... I don't know if it's mental but I move things around so they won't disturb me ... won't attract my attention while I'm listening. That's about the extent of my preparation. Other than that, I just wait for the directions.

R: I try to block out the rest of the noise in the classroom but I don't think of anything in relation to Japanese.

R: I don't know how to mentally prepare myself.

R: Yes, I try and relax because a friend of mine told me it's better to relax than be tense about it and be nervous

... so go in there with an open mind and it'll be over with after a while.

R: Not really. I just prepare myself mentally for the dialogue ... because there's nothing that you can do. I get ready to take notes down and look for nouns and verbs and get ready to pick out ... and see what happened.

R: Yes. I try to bring all the words that I know forth ... so I can translate them more readily when I hear them. It's kind of like a reserve back there and I just try and bring it forth and I just try and concentrate on Japanese, when I hear it.

Analysis

Successful listeners are unanimous about the kinds of things they do to prepare themselves for a listening exercise, whereas poor listeners, in general, are doing different things--each person doing his or her own thing. Good listeners all concentrate and prepare to listen to something in Japanese. They also say that they relax and tune out outside distractions.

On the other hand, poor listeners do not seem to do things to prepare themselves for the task at hand: they

more things around so that it will not disturb them and simply wait for directions and the passage. One subject said, "I don't know how to prepare myself." The one subject who claimed that he tries to relax also said, "it'll be over with," gives away his true feelings about the task. Another stated that he mentally prepares for Japanese to be spoken because, "there's nothing else I can do," suggests that he is merely going through the motions. Another subject asserts that there is a vocabulary bank that is transferred from one place to another place in his brain in order to translate what will be heard in Japanese.

It is very evident from the above that good and poor listeners go through quite different preparations before a listening exercise.

Question: Do you have a certain way of listening to passages in a foreign language classroom? How long have you been doing it that way?

Successful

R: Yes. Again, I just listen to the key words. The faster that I understand those key words, the more words I'll listen to in each sentence. I've been doing this since

August.

R: Not really ... except that I just try to look for some key words and pick up my hearing a bit. I've been doing this for this past school year and a little while in high school ... I hardly did it in high school.

R: Well, most of the time the instructor gives us the questions first ... so I read through the questions and then when the passage is read the first time, I try and find the answers and the second time, I try to make sure those are the answers that I want for the questions. I normally don't take notes. I've been doing this since I began this class.

R: It's weird but I seem to use ... personally I stare out into space and I just kind of try to use my ears as much as I can ... hearing to the best of my ability ... that's just my way of getting total concentration on the tape recorder. I usually take notes and I've been doing this ever since I started foreign languages ... it's just a habit.

R: I just try and pick out the key points ... and then find out what happens to them ... if I don't catch them the first time around. I've been doing this since I came to the Japanese class.

R: I'm trying to get as much out of the tape as I can from what I have learned. I'm listening for phrases ... familiar phrases that I understand ... certain vocabulary words. I think if you can understand the vocabulary than you can pick up a lot of the things ... out of the meaning. I try and kind of put the puzzle together and ... putting the meaning to what's been said. I've been doing this since I started learning Japanese.

Unsuccessful

R: It's mainly the same thing I already described. How I ... the first time I try to get the words that most easily come to me. This is my second semester and it wasn't ... I'd say several weeks into my first semester that I started doing that.

R: No. I just try to listen to mostly the vocabulary. Right now at the moment the sentence patterns don't mean too much ... so I just listen for the vocabulary ... the nouns and the verbs. I've use this method ever since I started Japanese.

R: Well, like we've been doing ... I usually ... listen for the main ... the main nouns and stuff and try and make sense from that ... by listening to that. I've done it this

way ever since I first started Japanese.

R: You mean the way I was doing when I was listening to the passage here ... yes, that's how I do it. I've been doing this ever since Japanese class started in August.

R: When I know it's being read twice, I can focus first on the nouns and the verbs ... if the nouns come really easy. However, if I can't get the verbs, I just try and get the main nouns ... because there's only a certain amount of verbs that can associate with nouns ... that's about it. I've been using this technique since last semester.

R: Like I said, I just try and pick out the familiar words that I know for certain. I've been doing this since I took Spanish in junior high school.

Analysis

The comments made here for listening techniques are very similar to ones made by successful and unsuccessful listeners during the retrospection portion of the interview.

Successful listeners focus on key words, key points, and key phrases, whereas unsuccessful listeners generally attend to familiar words only. The latter group also mentions

vocabulary a lot, especially nouns and verbs. Perhaps, what is significant is the total lack of any mention of key ideas or main points on which successful listeners place great importance.

Both groups have been using their techniques since they started learning Japanese. Only one subject from each group said that their technique was utilized prior to studying Japanese. Thus, it appears that both groups have developed their own ways of comprehending aural stimuli.

Question: Do you use this technique for all listening comprehension tasks in the classroom: to write a summary, for a multiple-choice test, etc? Have you tried other things?

Successful

R: Yes, I use this technique for all listening exercises. No, I have not tried anything else.

R: It depends if I have the answers to questions in front of me. Like on a GR (mid-term examination), we have this one section where there's already answers and there will be questions later on. On those, I look at the answers and when they read the passage, I just associate certain

sentences with the answers and just put a check on the one I think it is and later on when they read the question ... that's when I really check to see if it's right or not. Most of the time, I try to take as much condensed notes as I can ... I try to take at least two or three words per sentence. Sometimes when I want to try and pick up my conversational abilities ... I don't take notes as much as I can and see what I come up with. Sometimes I do that in class and I find that's really harder. Other than that I have not tried other things ... not as of yet.

R: Most of the time I do. Those are the times when the teacher says, "I'm going to play a passage to you. You can try to take notes to try and see ... to remind you of what you heard and afterwards I'll ask you what you heard." The whole class usually takes notes ... so I try to take some. Other than on those occasions, I just sit there and try to understand most of the passage. Other than taking notes and just sitting there, no ... those are the two ways that I've been doing it.

R: Yes, I take notes ... I need them to recall things. No, I haven't tried other things ... well, you should stick with what's been good to you.

R: Yes, I just try and pick out the key points ... and then find out what happens to them ... if I don't catch them the first time around. When it's multiple choice, what I try to do is ... I try to ... read the answers ... the choices, and then I'll look for the choices inside the passage. I can't remember trying anything else.

R: I'm listening for phrases ... familiar phrases that I understand ... certain vocabulary words. I think if you can understand the vocabulary than you can pick up a lot of the things ... out of the meaning. I think I'd probably have different ways if it was ... if I had to write in Japanese from listening to something ... then I'd take notes down with Japanese words in it. But then again, if I had to write something in English, I might mix up the words or so ... and write some words in Japanese and English ... whatever came to mind first. I usually don't even take notes for multiple-choice answers to romanized Japanese or ... some of the key words in that so I know what I'm looking for. Other than that, I have not tried anything else that I can think of.

Unsuccessful

R: It's mainly the same thing I already described. How I ... the first time I try to get words that most easily come

to me. I try to get the verbs but the ones that I remember or end up remembering anyway are the nouns and adjectives. This is my second semester and it wasn't ... I'd say several weeks into my first semester that I started doing that. Although it wasn't ... I wasn't consciously trying to do it. I think what I did at first was try to recognize each word as it came and try to look for individual meanings of words instead of how they might relate to each other in a sentence. Later, even though I still get individual words, I'm looking more for a relationship between some kind of words ... either by proximity or by some relational or something. If the passage seems difficult to me at first, I'll definitely go into what I described. But if it seems ... if I can recognize the pattern of words right off or if I can recognize each individual words and its meaning as it comes along, I'll try to do that ... but usually, there are enough words in there that I don't understand or I can't pick up immediately ... so then I have to go into that process.

R: I use the same procedure all the time. No, I haven't tried other things ... nor have I spoken to anyone about what they do.

R: I was just thinking about that ... trying to think how I did that. If I had a multiple-choice exam what I'd probably

do is ... I wouldn't take as many notes as I had to do here for a written summary. What I'd probably do is just try and get the main gist and then just try and listen to the questions and look for the answer down below. I don't really know how to ... I guess that's just the way it came natural ... so that's the way I've been doing it.

R: Yes, I normally do what I was doing here. I've tried other things but it doesn't work. This is about the easiest way I could learn it. It's a lot easier on my mind. In the long run, it seems like I get more out of it than other ways. I've tried taking notes in the beginning ... from the start of it so ... maybe I'd say I took notes in the second part and did more if I took notes during the first part too. But somehow I didn't get as much as before because I got confused more ... while I was taking the notes. So, now I just take notes during the second playing. Well, I tried writing the whole sentence out but that took too long too. So, I just started using key words.

R: When I know it's being read twice, I can focus first on the nouns and the verbs ... if the nouns come really easy. However, if I can't get the verbs, I just try and get the main nouns ... because there's only a certain amount of verbs that can associate with nouns ... that's about it. I just kind of grew into this ... type of note-taking ... order and stuff because it it's more orderly on paper than it's probably going to be more orderly in my mind. That's how I feel. In the beginning, I was more or less concentrating on the whole type of sentence. Either I knew the whole sentence or I lost most of the sentence ... trying to figure out what was said ... trying to engulf the whole sentence. I took mental notes mainly. I also tried to set it in order but then if I had these notes in front of me, I could ... have something solid I could look back to. I use this technique for all listening exercises. I've often thought of ways to increase the knowledge ... but I've come to the decision that this is probably the best way for me.

R: Like I said, I just try and pick out the familiar words that I know for certain. This technique seems the easiest. No, I do not like this technique because ... well ... I think I'm getting a "C." And the thing that brings me down a lot is listening comprehension ... because the teacher grades heavily on that. I just haven't had any better way you know. No, I haven't tried other things. I mean I've thought about it a lot but I haven't been able to come up with anything that works ... any better. When it comes time for a GR (mid-term examination), if I did, I'd just go back to what I'm more comfortable with ... because I've been doing it so long.

Analysis

Successful and unsuccessful listeners use virtually the same listening technique for all types of listening comprehension exercises. When it comes to experimenting with other techniques, however, there is a difference between the two groups of listeners.

Good listeners usually use their way of listening for all listening exercises: multiple-choice items, writing an answer, or writing a summary. One subject said that, "you should stick with what's been good to you." This seems to be the case because most of the subjects in this group have not tried other things like the unsuccessful group.

Poor listeners have tried other techniques to improve their listening comprehension. The majority of them have done such things as: concentrate on each sentence or each word and taking notes during the first reading. Only two subjects from this group have not experimented and used the same technique since the beginning their study of Japanese. The unsuccessful listener has tried to improve his listening comprehension by not only using different methods but also, thinking about how to do it better. In any case, they have settled on what appears to be an inefficient and ineffective technique. Their reasons for what they do are that it came natural, it seems easiest, and it's the best way for me. One subject from this group did not like his technique but had not tried other things.

Question: Have you studied another foreign language before? Has that experience had any affect on what you do when you are asked to listen to a passage?

Successful

R: Yes, French. I think it ... well, I know from French that the key was to learning the vocabulary ... so I knew that I had to know the words that I was hearing from the passage before I could understand it. I think it also makes me pay a little more attention to verb tense.

R: Yes, Japanese. The high school Japanese I learned was basically writing and not listening too much ... so I'm more fluent I guess ... in writing.

R: Yes, Spanish. Well, when I first got into the class, I had to remind myself that this isn't Spanish ... this is Japanese. And, so not ... I'm sort of tuned in to Japanese, so that if anybody asks me anything in Spanish right now, I probably wouldn't be able to answer it. We did not have any listening exercises in Spanish.

R: Yes, Spanish. No, you just get used to sentence structures. Like I have to tune out ... a lot of times, I'll mix Japanese and Spanish ... just by accident.

R: Yes, Spanish. No, because it wasn't mainly a speaking class ... it was more written. So, I could just read it right off. We didn't have that many dialogues ... or passages.

R: Yes, Spanish. I guess it has helped me for just listening to another language when it's spoken. But I found Spanish a lot easier.

Unsuccessful

R: Yes, Latin. Well, the vowel sounds and so forth are quite a bit different. So, I can't really use those but the kind of ... or the way I store the information in the beginning of the sentence is the same way that I did it in Latin.

R: Yes, French. My one year of French was not very productive ... we didn't learn very much.

R: Yes. German. No, I don't think so.

R: Yes, Spanish. No, I wouldn't say so. I studied Spanish ... it was a pretty easy language. I don't think it has helped in Japanese. To me, Japanese is totally new. We had listening exercises in Spanish but not many.

R: No, I have not studied a foreign language before. I feel ... that I've missed out a little ... by not taking another foreign language before ... but I really don't have any answer to that ... it probably has a little bit ... but that doesn't bother me, not really.

R: Yes, Spanish. No, that hasn't had any affect on me when I'm asked to listen to a passage.

Analysis

The vast majority of subjects from both the successful and unsuccessful groups have previously studied a foreign language. There appears to be an affect of this experience on both groups.

The successful listeners had all studied a language: four in Spanish, one in French, and one in Japanese. They said that learning a foreign language previously made them attend to vocabulary and sentence structure and provided them with an opportunity to hear a foreign language. Two subjects from this group mentioned that their foreign language classes did not emphasize the listening skill but stressed instead the reading and writing skills.

As for the unsuccessful listeners, two studied Spanish, one each in Latin, German, and French, and one did not study a foreign language prior to learning Japanese. Four of the five subjects from this group (discounting the subject who had not studied a language before), claimed that their previous language learning experience had no affect or did not prepare them to listen to passages in Japanese. The student who studied Latin said that the way he stores information in the beginning of the sentence is similar--in Japanese, the subject, object, adjectives, etc., come before the verb. It does not appear that this group was adequately prepared to begin listening to passages in a foreign language.

In both groups, it does not seem that listening comprehension exercises were given equal training time as the other foreign language skills.

Question: Does the Japanese language have anything peculiar about it that you have to consider when you listen to it?

Successful

R: Yes, some of the sentence patterns are very different. For instance, there's relationals that go in different places. It's different from English. You have to know the

patterns to completely understand what the sentences says. It doesn't cause me problems if I know the sentence patterns. Japanese word order does not bother me too much. I'm used to it now. I think at the very beginning ... but it was easily overcome ... Japanese has a pretty easy sentence pattern basically. It's not like in English ... we have so many different variables ... the verb can be ... sound a lot different, where in Japanese, you have the basic dictionary form and just the suffixes are different.

R: I think it's basically the sentence structure. Like instead of ... usually the verb comes at the end of the sentence in Japanese. I know a lot of my classmates have trouble with that when they were just starting to learn and ... if I remember right, I had trouble learning to associate the beginning and then look at the end, then look at the middle but ... now, it doesn't bother me too much ... so I can just look at the sentence straight through.

R: No it doesn't to me. Word order doesn't bother me.

R: Well, it's a lot easier when I've been exposed to it for a while ... like in the classroom ... since I have it every other day ... it helps, but when I first got into it ... getting used to it. Word order doesn't bother me ... I never really think about it.

R: Sort of because ... sometimes the way the sentence is structured is not the same as in English. Like when they said ... she wanted to tour Europe ... the way I think it was said was that they said Europe first, and then they said she wanted to tour. And so ... for me, it helps because I can pick out the noun, the important one ... the one that really strikes me ... and then just from then on ... I just kind of catch it sometimes. I catch the noun on the first time and the verb on the second time ... if I don't get it the first time.

R: Maybe relationals ... they're different from other ... any languages that I've studied. Well, in some cases ... they can change the whole meaning of the sentence and you might not even pick it up. Also, all the verb forms ... I have trouble sometimes with ... with some of the verb forms and the correct forms of those ... because you have ... you keep the same base but the endings are all different and I get them all mixed up. Sometimes word order poses problems ... it's in reverse order from English. Some of the ... I think some of the because ... sometimes in Japanese you say because of something this happened. But in English you say, this happens because of this. It's just reversed.

Unsuccessful

R: I notice it's ... from what I've seen so far ... it's like the Latin language that I studied where the verb comes at the end and ... the adjectives and nouns, mostly before the verb. So that you have to hold the subject or direct object or indirect object in your head and wait for the verb to come along and put some kind of order to it. I also notice that at least the way I've heard the names stated so far ... it's not like English where you say ... I'd better not say that ... I'm not too sure. But I think in Japanese a lot of times they give you a warning ... a warning about what you can expect next. Like when I hear anata no namae wa (your name is) ... I expect a name and the verb is right after it ... wa and ga usually signify to me subject or something of that sort.

R: The verbs and nouns come in completely different places as compared to English. I just have to watch where I'm putting them. It doesn't affect me ... not any more than just being unfamiliar with it.

R: The word order I guess. It doesn't make sense ... some of the times the way they put the words together ... like what I know ... like a word would be like ... I can know like each individual words ... what each individual word means and the way they're put together ... they way that it is read sometimes ... it doesn't make sense to me but ... the verb is usually at the end. No, that doesn't really bother me.

R: The sentence patterns. Like I told some of my friends, "Yeah, I learn Japanese ... backwards, forwards, sideways ... just to understand it." Well, there are so many patterns in Japanese ... the Japanese language, that sometimes you get them confused. Like, I am ... that's easy ... because that's I am Chris ... that's easy to translate to English. But then when you start saying things like ... when you see a sentence in Japanese and you try and translate it, sometimes it's backwards ... this way ... you have to rearrange them in English to understand it. Like ... Tookyoo e ikimasu ... Tokyo I am going. To me, I have to turn it around ... that's an extra step in my mind ... I am going to Japan. I rearrange at the end of the second reading ... because in the first reading, I try and just get ikimasu and Tookyoo and then, after the second passage, I know Tookyoo e ikimasu ... and just turn it around.

R: When I listen to it ... no, expressions of other people ... often relate a type of verb to my head. Word order doesn't really bother me in any major sense. It's a type of reversing ... the reversal of the words and stuff doesn't really bother me that much ... not really.

R: Like in class, the tapes are really high pitched and kind of fast for me ... the slower it is the better I can understand them. Like I said, if we're studying certain sentence patterns ... if it's really one that I'm not really comfortable with or one that I don't know real well, I'll have to keep it in my mind so that I'll know where the relational goes, the verb, the noun, everything like that. I'm not bothered by Japanese word order.

Analysis

Successful and unsuccessful listeners both mention sentence structure, sentence patterns and word order a lot as things peculiar to consider when they listen to Japanese.

Good listeners do not seem to be bothered as much by word order as poor listeners seem to be. For example, four of the six subjects in this group said that they are either not bothered by it or not bothered by it too much. Only one

subject from this group said that word order is a problem and that occurs sometimes. Other things that good listeners consider peculiar to Japanese are relationals and the different verb endings/inflections.

Poor listeners brought up word order a lot and often spoke about the necessity to rearrange things, to do a reversal or to turn the sentence around. In fact, except for one subject who had studied Latin (similar to Japanese where the verb is in the final position), every subject in this group referred to it. Not one subject spoke about relationals or verb endings/inflections. Perhaps, they do not consider form as being important in assisting them to comprehend as the good listeners do. Or maybe, they do not have time to attend to form.

Poor listeners seem to be very concerned with word order as opposed to good listeners. Perhaps, these poor listeners are spending too much time and effort in rearranging the Japanese sentence into English while trying to comprehend a listening passage. As noted previously, good listeners translate from Japanese to English faster than poor listeners.

Question: How do you normally do on listening exercises?
Can you explain why?

Successful

R: I usually get as much as anybody. I think it's my ability to pick up a lot of words ... to hear a lot of the words. I think it's because ... basically, I know what the words mean ... from the vocabulary ... that's just about it ... then, I put them together.

R: I guess I do pretty good on listening exercises. I guess it's just that Japanese language background ... having already being exposed to it in my home and in school for a couple of years ... even though it's a different type.

R: I guess fair. Well, a lot of times I don't understand what they're saying in the passage. And, a lot of times, I don't get to read all the questions because they're all written in Japanese ... so by the time I read the questions, I've forgotten what the passage was about ... and I don't know the answer.

R: I do pretty well. I think I have an advantage over the other guys where ... I've heard people talk to me before. I've been exposed more to the language than they have. I've heard Japanese recently ... my grandparents ... when I talk to them.

R: I usually do O.K. I usually do about average. Sometimes, I don't study the vocabulary that good. I usually catch most of it but then ... I usually do average compared to the rest of the class.

R: I don't do really well ... but I guess I do average maybe. I get lapses. Sometimes, I'm just disinterested in what's said. I don't know ... maybe it's because I can't understand what's being said ... and it just doesn't interest me after that.

Unsuccessful

R: Normally, not very well. I think it's because I can't pick out the vowel sounds like ... well, in order to distinguish between words. A lot of times. I think some of the syllables ... like the end syllable of one word and the beginning of another one runs together ... it sounds like ... and I tend to run too many syllables together and it sounds ... I just don't recognize the word.

R: I don't do very well. My main problem is ... it just goes too fast. I like to take my time and understand what they're talking about.

R: Not too good. Maybe ... I think it's because I don't know all my vocabulary ... I suppose I should. Like on the last one we just did ... like if I reviewed my vocabulary a little more often ... the word that I had before and try to know them a little clearer so when I heard them, I would know what they meant faster.

R: Not too well, about 50%. It's not the vocabulary, I know that. It's putting the sentences in the right way that I understand them in English. Like on reading comprehension, I can do it because it's right there and I can turn them around but when you have a listening comprehension, it's all in your mind and if you have an extra step in your mind, it takes time and you get confused more.

R: I really don't do that well on them ... not as well as I really wish to do ... maybe 65% of it. I get lost a lot of times in the dialogue or passage ... especially like if they are fairly long ... I get a little bit lost in the order of my sentence patterns. My lack of ... sometimes, I just go blank on a word. I can't associate that to the verb or the verb to the noun ... either way. Most times, I get lost on

a couple of words ... maybe the grammatical pattern is not what I anticipated.

R: I normally do pretty poorly. I guess it's just because what I'm doing isn't working. In class, when I don't have the time to sit down and think about it, then it comes a lot faster than it does here ... like if the tapes are fast or high pitched or something ... I have even more trouble.

Analysis

Good and poor listeners are very aware of their capabilities on listening comprehension exercises. Their explanations provide an insight into what they think is the cause of their success or lack thereof. Their comments also reveal some of their frustrations.

Successful listeners claim to do quite well on listening exercises. Reasons for success include ability to pick up words (vocabulary), ability to put them together (in context), and prior background or exposure to the language at home and in school. Reasons for lack of success are the inability to read the questions and answers in Japanese on the test paper and to listen simultaneously to the passage as well as losing interest in the exercise because of the

inability to comprehend what is being said.

Unsuccessful listeners are also cognizant of their listening skills. Their responses ranged from poor to not very good. Their reasons for doing poorly include the lack of vocabulary knowledge, the tape is too fast and problems in comprehending the sentence structure, that is, translating from Japanese to English while the tape is being played. A few subjects in this group mentioned that they would like to take their time and understand what is being said. One person said that, "what I'm doing isn't working."

Both good and poor listeners want to do a good job. They all would like to understand what is being said and to obviously, do well. Each time a listening exercise or test is presented, however, it appears to reinforce the poor listener's perceptions of his listening capabilities without any hope for improvement.

Question: How do you feel about listening comprehension exercises in the foreign language classroom?

Successful

R: I think they're very important. It's important because if you are listening to somebody talk, you can't always see

the person, like on a telephone. I like the exercises in class. I think they're very helpful ... it's helpful in that you can understand other people when they speak to you.

R: I think it might be one of the most important parts in learning the language. Because you have to understand what the other person is saying before you can try and express what you want to say ... and not always can you have it in written form.

R: I think that they're good to have because ... what's the sense of taking a foreign language if you're not going to be able to translate it if you hear it. I do have negative feelings about them because ... my grades are going to go down. Right now, it's my weakest skill. I guess ... like the passages we heard in class, some of them are read really fast and there are words in there that I don't understand ... so I never catch the full passage.

R: I think you need to be exposed to it more. You need also more conversation practice too. I think it's hard in this school ... like this to teach Japanese to people who are first-year students. I think you need that motivation ... personally I did ... to really tackle any language like when I was in Hawaii, I picked up the desire to learn Japanese and like even when I was down in Mexico ... you

just pick it up ... you want to learn the language. I enjoy listening exercises in class. Personally, it sharpens my ... I pick up a lot more vocabulary words ... just by hearing them a lot. I guess repetition just drills them into you.

R: For me ... it helps me out because ... if I can listen to it, then I feel that I can eventually recreate that sentence. Then, if I ever have to use it, then I'll be able to speak that way.

R: I don't like them. Mainly, because I just don't do too well on them. I think they help your listening and learning skills. They probably help you learn the language a little bit better.

Unsuccessful

R: Well, I think they are an accurate way of testing your ability to hear and understand the language as it's spoken. I think it's a pretty accurate test. I guess I don't enjoy them very often because I don't normally do as well as I'd want to. But I think it's practical. I'd feel uncomfortable without them. Well, that's ... if I ever went to Japan ... the easiest way for me to communicate would be to speak with somebody and I guess that's what I expect to get out of

any language class is ... how to understand and speak the language.

R: They are the worst part of a foreign language. It's just the part that's hardest to do. I do see a need for them because ... if you don't get used to listening to it ... how are you going to learn it. I don't care for it but I would not like to see it discontinued.

R: They are challenging for me. I don't dislike them but I don't really like them. I guess I like them better than some of the other things we have to do in the classroom but ... that's about all I can say about them. There is a need for it.

R: I think they should have more because ... it seems like during the first time you are totally lost. But then, when you keep drilling it and you keep hearing more and more, you begin to understand it. Like this passage we just had, the first time when I listened to it, it was kind of confusing. But, then when I heard it the second time or maybe a third or fourth time, I get more and more of it. I think they are a challenge ... I like it.

R: I really don't mind it ... but if they went over ... like each sentence more directly ... personally sometimes, I think the foreign language passages are a little quick ...

at least they are a little quick for me. To me, studying a foreign language is to try to learn and try to comprehend them instead of ... see how fast you can play something ... just so a person can understand just barely part of it. There is a necessity for listening comprehension exercises. You just can't study sentence patterns all the time. You have to know how to relate something to the whole system.

R: I feel uncomfortable. I don't enjoy them. I can see how they can be very useful but ... for me ... I don't think they're useful for me ... until I can pick up speed. If I can get some real slow tapes on my own, I could probably pick it up a lot better. I don't want to sound childish or anything but with this language ... I think I'd need individual instruction ... one on one because like I said, I just don't pick it up ... any foreign language too well.

Analysis

Listeners have different attitudes toward listening comprehension exercises in the foreign language classroom. They all agree, however, that it is an essential part of learning a foreign language.

In general, successful listeners enjoy doing listening comprehension exercises. They see it as a very important part of their language learning. In fact, they agree that it provides them with an opportunity to develop their listening skills. Only one subject from this group did not like listening exercises and that was because he is having problems with it and considers it as his weakest skill.

Understandably, unsuccessful listeners tend to not enjoy the listening comprehension task because they do not do well on them. Although they see a need for them, they do not often see the practicality or future use of it like their successful counterparts who see it as a means to an end, that is, to eventually understand someone who speaks Japanese.

It appears that although all listeners see the need for listening comprehension exercises, they do not always perceive the reason as to why they are doing them. Finally, they do indeed have different feelings about them, especially, if they do not do well on them.

Question: In terms of you being able to get at something that you didn't understand immediately, how good are you at coming up with the answer later. Let's say on a scale of one to ten, with one being the least skillful and ten being the most skillful? What do you do to figure out the unknown word or phrase?

Successful

R: I think probably a seven if I've seen the word before ... I'll take some time and I'll probably come up with it ... if I recognize that I might know what the meaning is ... the word looks familiar. I'm pretty good at figuring it out. If I can get everything else ... the other words around it in the sentence ... if I can figure those out, then I can generally figure out what the word means. If I can't understand the word, I just do the best I can with the rest of the sentence. As for the word I don't understand, I just put it away in my mind but I still remember it ... but I don't linger on it because I'll just miss the things afterwards if I did that.

R: I guess I'm about a seven on picking up things later on ... like a couple of words that I don't really understand by the word association process and elimination. I may find

out at least what the sentences are basically trying to say. Well, it's just like ... the English language where you don't really know ... understand what one word means ... where you can by the noun or a few other words ... maybe break it down with your knowledge of what the noun is. Like maybe in construction, you have a carpenter who pounds a nail in a stud. And you don't know the word stud. You could figure out all the tools that the carpenter works with ... then you eliminate it all the way down to what he pounds his nails in and through that you could probably figure out what a stud is ... a piece of wood that has to do something.

R: About a seven. Well, most of the time, I can come up with something that's pretty close to what it actually is. I listen to the sentences before and the sentences afterwards and try to fit in that sentence somewhere. Most of the time, I primarily listen to sentences ... if they're short enough so I can understand them. I also listen to key words in each sentence.

R: I guess a six or seven. Well, as long as I know the rest of the words surrounding that word ... with common sense you could derive it. If it's a sentence, then I go back and see if I understood the sentences before and sentences after. I think it's only natural that you go back and try to tie it together.

R: I would say a six or seven. Because if I understood the rest of it then ... I feel like I can just kind of recreate it ... what she would be saying ... what the person would be saying. I would try and put myself in that person's place ... and, then I know that if I was talking about ... my name is so and so ... my family lived here, my father and mother do this ... I wouldn't expect her to turn around and say something like ... the president of the United States is dumb ... something like that. For the word or phrase I don't understand, it sticks in my mind mainly ... and what I try to do is ... a lot of times it gets in the way when I hear something. And, if I don't understand it ... I'll pause to think about it and I'll miss the next sentence or so. And, so then I have to try and just forget about it at that time and then, in between the pauses of the two readings ... when they pause, then I think about it. And then, I try and get ready for it again.

R: Maybe a seven. I don't know, I just relate. I usually can pick up meanings from key words ... and things like that ... that I recognize around the sentence. You have to use logic ... with the word in order to put things in place. Relationals will help ... if you know what type of words ... they'll tell you what type of word it'll be usually.

Unsuccessful

R: Oh ... I think I'm somewhere around a six or seven. Well, I guess if you let five be the mean ... just the way I gather that other people piece the sentences together ... I know that a lot of times the reason some other people hear or understand more of the sentence than I do is because they ... hear the words better. And when they're talking about something, I can usually tell whether they had to use the same kind of reasoning I did or whether it just came to them because they understood it word for word. And, I also know some other people in the same boat as I am that don't catch all the syllables and I seem to do better than they do on the average ... at piecing the sentence together. Well, of course, I usually catch the nouns first and I try to catch the verbs. Things like the relationals ... if I hear something like food of some mention of food, I expect some comment about how it tastes, or was it hot or cold, and I can ... I'll try to remember syllables or the tone of the sentence or something that might indicate whatever the feeling was about the thing.

R: I'd say about a seven. Usually I can pick up things the second time around better than ... a lot better than I could the first. It's easier the second time around because ...

I'm not paying attention to what I did understand. And so I know ... like if I have one sentence that I got and one sentence that I didn't, then I can concentrate on the sentence that I didn't for a little bet longer time than before. Probably the reason I didn't get it the first time was it went by me too fast, so the second time, I'll just try to listen to the ending ... the verb and maybe a word in the middle or something that I understand ... concentrate a little bit more on picking up words.

R: I'd say about a seven. Once I have a little while to think about it ... like I can usually say ... now, what does that mean and think about it and come up with it. But, like if I'm not super familiar with it ... then that's what it takes sometimes ... extra time. I just keep playing it over in my head trying to remember where I saw it at and what it has been used with before and stuff like that. Sometimes, I think of the word and I'll know exactly where it is in the vocabulary ... you know the word sheet that I got that had all the words on it ... I'll know exactly where it is and I'm trying to think what it means by looking at that picture ... so sometimes I'll do that. That's what I mean by that. Plus, like words that I've used before or I've heard before, I try to remember like in the dialogue ... how it was used and stuff like that.

R: About a six or seven ... about average. I think it's mostly guessing ... it's logic. I try and use logic. That's about it. I don't like to guess because of my grade ... I'd rather understand it.

R: I'd say about six. Well, most of the time ... I associate the noun with some type of verb or the verb with some type of noun, depending on sentences before and after. I either can take ... an educated guess of what's going to happen in that sentence so therefore, my percentage is slimmed down a little bit ... so I have a little bit better chance of answering it correctly. I look at the sentences ahead of the sentence that I really don't ... a little bit fuzzy on ... then, I look at the sentence afterwards and if they are related to each other in some manner, I have a pretty good guess about what happened in that sentence. That's why I can narrow it down to a couple of different verbs or different nouns.

R: I'd say a four. Well, I can do it every now and then but probably not as often as I'd like to or should. Like I said before, I just repeat the word to myself ... in Japanese, the way I heard it and ... especially, if I think I know it, and then all of a sudden it'll come to me.

Analysis

Good and poor listeners appear to use different strategies to determine an unknown word or phrase. In addition, good listeners seem very confident in their ability to come up with what they do not immediately recognize.

Successful listeners rate themselves as a six or seven, majority say seven, on a scale of one to ten in being able to somehow figure out an unknown portion of a passage. They use the context of the passage, other words around the unknown, or sentences that occur before and after. They speak about using common sense and logic to ascertain what was previously uncomprehended. They also state that they remember the unknown and put it somewhere on hold so it will not interfere with their comprehension process. They do not linger on it because they know that they will miss the next few sentences if they do so.

Unsuccessful listeners tend to rate themselves slightly below successful listeners when it comes to discerning unknown information. The majority of the unsuccessful listeners rated themselves a six or a seven; one subject rated himself a four while another one gave himself a six. A few of the subjects in this group try to use context and

sentences before and after the unknown like their successful counterparts. Perhaps, one reason others cannot, is their technique of trying to understand the nouns during the first playing and the verbs during the second playing. One subject claimed he waited for the second playing to figure out the unknown because there was more time to do so since he was not attending to what he understood the first time (if indeed he did). A few others revealed that they guess a lot and they also repeat the unknown word until they figured it out or found themselves behind a few sentences.

Successful listeners use different strategies from unsuccessful listeners. The former know how to use context as well as words and sentences around what is unknown and they also realize they can do better if they ignore or forget what they do not immediately recognize and perhaps come back to it later. On the other hand, unsuccessful listeners seem to hang on and not let go of a word or phrase and hence, lose their place in the passage.

Question: Is there anything else you'd like to say about listening exercises--how you feel or what you'd like to see done?

Successful

R: Well, right now, our listening exercises are very good. What we do now is like we'll have questions and we'll review those questions and then hear the reading which is much easier. Then, you can pick out the key words ... knowing what the questions were ... you can pick out the answers a lot easier. They're very important in learning the language.

R: I think it's good to have listening comprehension ... even more if you are going to Japan or someplace where most of the understanding is going to be in the conversational type situation. What I wish is ... maybe we could have a little more outside the classroom to help with everyday experiences or things that might just pop up ... so that you don't get stuck if you happen to go to Japan or a foreign country.

R: No.

R: I think they should be used more ... because that's the only way you get used to foreign languages ... exposure to it.

R: No.

R: I can't think of anything.

Unsuccessful

R: No, not really. Like I said ... at least the one's I've had are a pretty accurate test of how much I really understand when somebody speaks to me.

R: No.

R: No.

R: No.

R: They should be kept. That's most definite but I think the emphasis should be on understanding the dialogue ... in a whole sentence instead of an expressed dialogue as like too rapid for ... like the students to comprehend the whole meaning. Like sometimes, the dialogue is read rather quickly. If a few people get lost ... I'm one of them ...

most of the time I get lost half-way through the dialogue ... but if the dialogue was read just a bit slower, I could probably pick up the missing words.

R: No.

Analysis

There were very few comments from both groups. Of those who replied, the good listeners said that listening comprehension exercises were good to have. One subject also mentioned that the instructor provided questions and reviewed them before the passage was played. This procedure made it easier. Of course, if the questions are in Japanese, the listening comprehension problem is compounded by reading comprehension.

The other comment was made by a subject from the poor listening group. He said that the emphasis of listening comprehension should be on understanding the sentences in the passage. Perhaps, this last remark should be given more thought and serious consideration by instructors who use or who plan to use listening comprehension exercises in the foreign-language classroom.

DFF/3820

24 April 1980

Questionnaire for Major Fujita

Major Vega
Major Groce
Major Proctor
Major Strong

1. Please administer the attached questionnaire to all Foreign Language 132 and 142 students (not 142H students). The questionnaire can be completed in 15 to 20 minutes.
2. Attached are the questionnaires for your section. Please leave them in the classroom(s) so they can be used by the next instructor. Have each instructor pick up the necessary digitek answer sheets (General Answer Sheet Type B)--the green form--in the storage room. Have students use a No. #2 pencil and have them put their cadet number in the "Numeric Grid" and sense mark the numbers. Stress the importance of such a questionnaire for research purposes.
3. Please return all questionnaires to me upon completion. Thank you for your cooperation.



REINHOLD H. SCHAEFFER, Major, USAF
Executive Officer
Department of Foreign Languages

Atch
Questionnaire

PRIVACY ACT STATEMENT

In accordance with paragraph 30, AFR 12-35, Air Force Privacy Act Program, the following information about this survey is provided:

AUTHORITY: Title 10, United States Code, 8012 and AFR 30-23, 22 Sep 76, Air Force Personnel Survey Program.

PRINCIPLE PURPOSE: To survey the foreign-language learners' listening strategies on listening comprehension exercises.

ROUTINE USES: The data obtained in this questionnaire will be used to obtain a better understanding of listening strategies that foreign-language learners employ.

DISCLOSURE IS VOLUNTARY: Completion of the questionnaire is voluntary; however, in the absence of full participation by a representative cross-section of cadets, the results of this effort could be biased. Therefore, your full participation is requested and appreciated. No adverse action will be taken against those cadets who refuse to complete the questionnaire.

QUESTIONNAIRE: YOUR WAY OF TRYING TO UNDERSTAND LISTENING COMPREHENSION EXERCISES

Purpose

This questionnaire is intended to discover how listening comprehension exercises in the foreign-language classroom are understood by students. Your responses will be used to determine what students generally do while listening. This is not a test. Your grade in your foreign-language class will not be affected by your answers. Although you will be asked to identify yourself by your Cadet Number, your

responses and your identity will remain confidential; information will not be released to instructors. Your Cadet Number will be used only for computer analysis of your answers to the questionnaire. Please respond to each statement as truthful as you can. The success of this project depends on you.

Carefully mark your Cadet Number on the digitek (General Answer Sheet Type B) in the section entitled "NUMERIC GRID." Please use blocks 1-6 only.

Instructions

Below are statements with which you may agree or disagree. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Read each statement carefully and decide your degree of agreement or disagreement using the scale at the top of each page. Throughout the questionnaire, you should assume that the listening passages in question are recorded on tape and will be played twice. Respond with your first impression even though you may have never before thought about the statement or your answer. Mark your responses carefully on the attached answer sheet (General Answer Sheet Type B) beginning with item number 1. Please use a number two (2) pencil.

A	B	C	D	E	F
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. I only understand a few words in each sentence.
2. I guess at meanings of words/phrases I do not understand in the listening passages.
3. After the passage is played the first time, I use the pause in between the two playings to gather my thoughts concerning the content of the passage.
4. While listening to the passage, I do not translate what I hear into English.
5. When listening to passages, I have difficulty understanding words that sound alike and have the same meaning in English and the foreign language.
6. In listening to passages, I focus on what I consider to be key words and phrases.
7. If I cannot understand the passage the first time, I do not make much of an attempt to comprehend it the second time.
8. I grasp the main ideas/concepts in the passage rather than trying to understand every word.
9. I do not make use of a personal system of written notes during listening exercises.
10. I do not have trouble organizing the information in the passages.
11. I determine the meaning of a word I do not immediately recognize by using the remaining words in the sentence as clues.
12. All I focus on in the passage are the content/main words in the sentence (e.g., nouns, verbs, and adjectives).
13. From the words and phrases that I understand in the sentences, I build a logical meaning for the entire passage.
14. I listen to my classmates when they give answers in class.

A	B	C	D	E	F
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

15. Function words (determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, and classifiers) are as important as content words (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) in comprehending passages.

16. During the first playing of the tape, I listen, organize, and summarize the contents of the passage.

17. When I hear complex sentences, I break them into simple sentences in my head.

18. The quality of the tapes for the listening exercises are good.

19. When I listen to passages, I use different approaches based on how I will be asked to answer (e.g., orally, in writing, in English, in the foreign language, multiple-choice, etc.).

20. I pay attention (listen) to my teacher as s/he talks to my classmates.

21. I compare the content of passages to what I have personally experienced in other foreign-language classroom situations or in daily life.

22. During listening comprehension exercises, I listen rather than take notes.

23. After listening to the passage once, I know what sections to listen for during the second playing.

24. I do not have a particular system for comprehending listening passages.

25. I listen to native speakers of the foreign language whenever possible.

26. It is unnecessary to pay attention to grammar in order to comprehend passages.

27. While listening to the tape and recognizing a few words in a sentence, I construct my own meaning of that sentence in English.

A	B	C	D	E	F
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

28. I listen for individual words rather than phrases (series of words connected together) in each sentence.

29. I do not remember the main ideas of the passage in exactly the same order in which they are presented.

30. I often think about a word or phrase from a sentence while the passage continues.

31. I mentally repeat in the target language the main ideas of the passage that I understand.

32. Only after listening to the passage twice do I attempt to make sense of it.

33. I do not make use of the adjectival endings in the foreign language to assist me in comprehending the sentence.

34. I prefer written notes to mental notes.

35. If I am unable to understand a few words in the passage, I do poorly.

36. In the foreign-language classroom, I prepare myself to listen to passages prior to listening to them.

37. I do not mentally repeat in the foreign language what I understood in the passage.

38. I do not try to understand every word in the passage.

39. I make use of verb endings in the foreign language to help me understand the sentence.

40. I do not use time words (yesterday, today, tomorrow, etc.) in the foreign language to help me understand the sentence.

41. When listening to the passage the second time, I focus chiefly on the portions that I did not understand very well the first time.

42. I come up with the meaning of words that I do not immediately recognize by using the remainder of the passage to assist me.

A	B	C	D	E	F
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

43. I understand passages even though I do not know a few words.

44. As I listen to the passage, I write down key words to help me remember what I heard.

45. I make mental notes of phrases (more than one word) in the passage, rather than single words.

46. If I cannot immediately make sense of some words in a sentence, I forget about them.

47. I tend to remember the beginning and ending portions of the passage better than the middle portion.

48. Whenever I listen to passages, the words seem to run together making it difficult to understand the sentences.

49. I am able to follow the "train of thought" throughout a passage.

50. When listening to the passage, I do not visualize the situation in which the words are being spoken.

51. During the second playing of the tape, I do not confirm what I understood during the first playing of the tape.

52. After listening to the passage twice, I remember entire phrases from many of the sentences.

53. In recalling the contents of passages, I use a combination of written and mental notes.

54. I do not have any difficulty relating one sentence to another sentence in the passage.

55. After listening to the passage once, I am able to come up with the central theme of the passage.

56. I have studied another foreign language prior to the one that I am now studying.

57. In a long sentence, I relate the first portion of the sentence to the latter portion of the sentence.

A	B	C	D	E	F
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

58. I do not know what to listen for in the passage.
59. When my foreign-language teacher asks a classmate a question, I do not make a mental response.
60. When listening to passages, I do not have a problem with the word order (subject, verb, and object in English) of the foreign language.
61. I try to determine if the content of the passage makes sense in relation to my prior experiences.
62. During the first playing of the tape (tape will be played twice), understanding the details is more important than getting the essential meaning of the passage.
63. When thinking about the contents of passages, I do not summarize them in my own words.
64. I do not take written notes in English during the listening exercise.
65. I get my thoughts organized by getting the "gist" of the message on the first playing of the tape, and then I attempt to fill in some details during the second playing.
66. After I listen to the passage once, I write down key words to assist me in remembering what I heard.
67. I do not care for the listening exercises in the foreign-language classroom.
68. Having studied another foreign language has helped me to learn how to listen in the target language I am now studying.

APPENDIX C
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

05/31/84

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY

***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S1) *****

	MEANS	STD DEV	CASES
1.	3.09732	1.21099	709.0
2.	3.59379	1.38852	709.0
3.	3.39415	1.22592	709.0
4.	3.43018	1.09040	709.0
5.	4.17630	1.13057	709.0
6.	4.29478	1.05592	709.0
7.	3.84767	1.22218	709.0
8.	3.86762	1.17623	709.0
9.	3.57687	1.15779	709.0
10.	3.75458	1.07179	709.0
11.	3.59520	1.17220	709.0
12.	2.91100	1.00611	709.0
13.	3.83639	1.05299	709.0
14.	3.56276	1.11389	709.0
15.	3.73343	1.24908	709.0
16.	4.58533	1.03203	709.0
17.	3.81241	1.06964	709.0
18.	3.64598	1.14619	709.0
19.	3.89422	1.33142	709.0
20.	4.18900	1.33651	709.0
21.	3.26375	1.14097	709.0
22.	3.86037	1.20097	709.0
23.	4.52609	0.90258	709.0
24.	4.28209	0.95933	709.0
25.	4.58815	0.83678	709.0
26.	4.45557	1.01113	709.0

05/31/84

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY

*****RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE CS2*****

1- 18
2- 142
3- 113
4- 111
5- 165
6- 116
7- 123
8- 143
9- 116
10- 113
11- 141
12- 145
13- 117
14- 163
15- 120
16- 157
17- 149
18- 140
19- 17

	MEANS	STD DEV	CASES
1- 18	4.59520	0.97194	709.0
2- 142	4.52609	0.90258	709.0
3- 113	4.58815	0.83678	709.0
4- 111	4.60508	0.91397	709.0
5- 165	4.71791	0.96812	709.0
6- 116	4.28209	0.95933	709.0
7- 123	4.70240	0.94046	709.0
8- 143	4.29478	1.05592	709.0
9- 116	4.82370	0.89012	709.0
10- 113	4.74048	1.00300	709.0
11- 141	4.77151	0.95594	709.0
12- 145	3.98025	1.04539	709.0
13- 117	3.65726	1.11849	709.0
14- 163	4.34556	1.03903	709.0
15- 120	4.77856	0.85224	709.0
16- 157	3.81241	1.06964	709.0
17- 149	3.75458	1.07179	709.0
18- 140	4.45557	1.01113	709.0
19- 17	5.27080	0.76469	709.0

05/31/84

... RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ...

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TR/

... RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S3))

	MEANS	STD DEV	CASES
1.	3.75740	1.37074	709.0
2.	3.66008	1.48342	709.0
3.	3.82652	1.38125	709.0
4.	3.82087	1.26125	709.0
5.	3.56861	1.48815	709.0
6.	2.79126	1.17549	709.0
7.	3.62482	1.27237	709.0

05/31/84

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY

***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S4) *****

1.	115	MEANS	STD DEV	CASES
2.	139	3.56700	1.25890	709.0
3.	133	3.80959	1.18208	709.0
4.	120	3.64598	1.14619	709.0
5.	131	4.77856	0.85224	709.0
6.	137	3.41044	1.18343	709.0
7.	125	3.23413	1.22885	709.0
8.	114	3.45698	1.38185	709.0
9.	126	4.55853	1.05553	709.0
10.	118	4.19323	1.27255	709.0
11.	136	3.62623	1.31267	709.0
12.	146	3.61354	1.21322	709.0
		4.07334	1.03892	709.0

05/31/84

... RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ...

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY

*****RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (SS)*****

1.	159				
2.	151				
3.	162				
4.	163				
5.	120				
6.	165				
7.	132				
8.	17				
9.	114				
10.	140				
		MEANS	STD DEV	CASES	
1.	159	4.51763	1.13436	709.0	
2.	151	4.66855	0.95455	709.0	
3.	162	4.39069	1.24009	709.0	
4.	163	4.34556	1.03903	709.0	
5.	120	4.78556	0.85224	709.0	
6.	165	4.71791	0.96812	709.0	
7.	132	4.58533	1.03203	709.0	
8.	17	5.27080	0.76469	709.0	
9.	114	4.55853	1.05553	709.0	
10.	140	4.45557	1.01113	709.0	

```

... RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ...
FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY
.....RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S6).....
05/31/84

1. 161
2. 156
3. 168
4. 121
5. 125
6. 154

MEANS          STD DEV          CASES
1. 3.74612      1.12138      709.0
2. 2.75599      2.05255      709.0
3. 2.43865      1.59030      709.0
4. 3.43441      1.22255      709.0
5. 3.45698      1.38185      709.0
6. 3.43018      1.09040      709.0

```

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***
 FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRF
 ***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S1) *****

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS		SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM- TOTAL CORRELATION	SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
148		96.58251	197.90365	0.59216	0.42636	0.87352
11		96.08604	196.80473	0.53641	0.37462	0.87495
110		96.20068	197.58071	0.59618	0.43729	0.87337
154		96.24065	200.93618	0.56627	0.39250	0.87455
158		95.50353	199.22774	0.59922	0.38799	0.87358
143		95.50505	201.46028	0.56899	0.46002	0.87460
135		95.83216	200.87716	0.49820	0.31865	0.87608
155		95.81241	200.80516	0.52321	0.33629	0.87545
152		96.10296	201.41453	0.51351	0.32732	0.87573
149		95.42525	201.60918	0.54750	0.34382	0.87507
160		96.08463	203.98718	0.42615	0.22382	0.87799
130		96.06883	207.82482	0.37194	0.21138	0.87921
129		95.84346	204.83845	0.45397	0.26136	0.87733
128		96.11707	204.91142	0.42265	0.22917	0.87806
124		95.94640	203.88413	0.39770	0.21995	0.87886
132		95.09450	207.03202	0.38834	0.25319	0.87885
157		95.86742	206.16827	0.39096	0.24333	0.87880
133		96.03305	206.34066	0.36369	0.19854	0.87956
167		95.78561	203.63759	0.37422	0.17425	0.87975
15		95.49083	207.28417	0.27440	0.13221	0.88267
147		96.41508	209.49189	0.26755	0.13555	0.88194
150		95.81946	206.18487	0.34802	0.19055	0.88008
142		95.15374	208.00317	0.41532	0.29033	0.87835
116		95.19774	207.88677	0.39124	0.20871	0.87879
113		95.09168	210.11446	0.36340	0.22851	0.87943
140		95.22426	207.76178	0.37210	0.25123	0.87920

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE						
SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	OF	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROBABILITY	
BETWEEN PEOPLE	5980.78468	708	8.44732			
WITHIN PEOPLE	21395.34616	17725	1.20707			
BETWEEN MEASURES	3710.71374	25	148.42855	148.55753	0.00000	
RESIDUAL	17684.63242	17700	0.99913			
NONADDITIVITY	41.83470	1	41.83470	41.96796	-0.00000	
BALANCE	17642.79772	17699	0.99662			
TOTAL	27376.05084	18433	1.48517			
GRAND MEAN =	3.83384					
TURKEY ESTIMATE OF POWER TO WHICH OBSERVATIONS MUST BE RAISED TO ACHIEVE ADDITIVITY = 1.7146726						

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***
FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY
***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S1) *****

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS 26 ITEMS
ALPHA = 0.88172 STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = 0.88279

05/31/84

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRI

***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S2) *****

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED TOTAL CORRELATION	SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
I8	80.10719	77.51674	0.39774	0.28480	0.82704
I42	80.17630	75.16497	0.59218	0.41517	0.81002
I13	80.11425	77.17761	0.50270	0.30962	0.82267
I11	80.09732	76.26029	0.51200	0.33852	0.82170
I65	79.98449	75.52095	0.52363	0.32150	0.82081
I16	80.42031	77.07733	0.43165	0.23025	0.82538
I23	80.00000	75.98870	0.51203	0.29534	0.82154
I43	80.40762	74.58361	0.52473	0.38039	0.82034
I6	79.87870	78.96832	0.34817	0.24877	0.82926
I3	79.96492	77.56493	0.37911	0.19873	0.82802
I41	79.93089	78.18025	0.36526	0.20594	0.82859
I45	80.72214	77.63879	0.35484	0.16999	0.82942
I17	81.04513	78.27480	0.29017	0.14568	0.83343
I63	80.35684	77.49254	0.36607	0.17792	0.82881
I20	79.92384	80.03939	0.29529	0.16294	0.83145
I57	80.88999	76.73647	0.39424	0.20049	0.82743
I49	80.94781	76.20208	0.42314	0.24999	0.82587
I40	80.24683	77.13814	0.40020	0.20114	0.82697
I7	79.43159	79.93493	0.34731	0.18129	0.82928

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROBABILITY
BETWEEN PEOPLE	3177.33926	708	4.48782		
WITHIN PEOPLE	11714.83158	12762	0.91793		
BETWEEN MEASURES	2209.08559	18	122.72698	164.53895	0.00000
RESIDUAL	9505.54599	12744	0.74588		
NONADDITIVITY	14.59785	1	14.59785	19.59976	0.00001
BALANCE	9490.94814	12743	0.74480		
TOTAL	14892.01084	13470	1.10557		

GRAND MEAN = 4.45802

TUKEY ESTIMATE OF POWER TO WHICH OBSERVATIONS MUST BE RAISED TO ACHIEVE ADDITIVITY = 1.7461834

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

19 ITEMS

ALPHA = 0.83300

STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = 0.83621

05/31/84

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY

***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S3) *****

OF CASES = 709.0

STATISTICS FOR SCALE MEAN 25.04937 VARIANCE 49.31253 STD DEV 7.02229 # VARIABLES 7

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED TOTAL CORRELATION	SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
144	21.29896	35.17594	0.75388	0.59091	0.83533
164	21.38928	35.31717	0.69433	0.48836	0.84374
166	21.22285	36.37400	0.68955	0.54715	0.84471
153	21.22849	37.26975	0.67872	0.49525	0.84654
19	21.48096	35.56920	0.64948	0.44776	0.85069
122	22.25811	39.68329	0.53638	0.35320	0.86175
134	21.42454	39.74183	0.49567	0.26253	0.85938

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROBABILITY
BETWEEN PEOPLE	4987.61032	708	7.04465		
WITHIN PEOPLE	4464.57143	4254	1.04950		
BETWEEN MEASURES	553.67399	6	92.27900	100.23305	0.00000
RESIDUAL	3910.89744	4248	0.92064		
NOMADITIVITY	36.72004	1	36.72004	40.25371	-0.00000
BALANCE	3874.17740	4247	0.91222		
TOTAL	9452.18174	4962	1.90491		

GRAND MEAN = 3.57868

TUKEY ESTIMATE OF POWER TO WHICH OBSERVATIONS MUST BE RAISED TO ACHIEVE ADDITIVITY = 0.0807173

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

7 ITEMS

ALPHA = 0.86931 STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = 0.86870

05/31/84

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY

***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (SN) *****

OF CASES = 709.0

STATISTICS FOR SCALE	MEAN 45.86756	VARIANCE 41.21787	STD DEV 6.57403	# VARIABLES 12
----------------------	------------------	----------------------	--------------------	-------------------

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED TOTAL CORRELATION	SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
115	42.40056	37.12181	0.29407	0.11773	0.64765
139	42.15797	35.97501	0.41224	0.23726	0.62750
133	42.32158	36.53768	0.36728	0.21608	0.63226
120	41.18900	38.35406	0.39196	0.34505	0.63756
131	42.57112	37.04935	0.33096	0.26327	0.64130
137	42.73343	36.74664	0.33300	0.26515	0.64080
125	42.51058	36.01295	0.31928	0.11597	0.64364
114	41.40903	38.49630	0.27541	0.30598	0.65035
126	41.77433	37.70889	0.28887	0.11542	0.65570
118	42.34433	37.71384	0.23451	0.07091	0.65879
136	42.35402	37.91828	0.25618	0.11231	0.65188
146	41.89422	39.39416	0.21043	0.07635	0.65963

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROBABILITY
BETWEEN PEOPLE	2549.85449	708	3.60149		
WITHIN PEOPLE	11141.08333	7799	1.42853		
BETWEEN MEASURES	1760.98885	11	160.08808	132.91586	0.00000
RESIDUAL	9380.11448	7788	1.20443		
NONADDITIVITY	35.73432	1	35.73432	29.77866	0.00000
BALANCE	9344.38016	7787	1.20000		
TOTAL	13698.93782	8507	1.60937		

GRAND MEAN = 3.83063

TUKEY ESTIMATE OF POWER TO WHICH OBSERVATIONS MUST BE RAISED TO ACHIEVE ADDITIVITY = 1.9967659

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

12 ITEMS

ALPHA = 0.66557 STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = 0.67252

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS ***
 FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY
 ***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (S) *****

05/31/84

OF CASES = 709.0

STATISTICS FOR SCALE
 MEAN 48.28914 VARIANCE 28.78210 STD DEV 5.36490 # VARIABLES 10

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM- TOTAL CORRELATION	SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
159	41.77151	23.01551	0.41160	0.21356	0.68613
151	41.62059	23.96483	0.42027	0.21943	0.68551
162	41.69845	23.84843	0.28037	0.09003	0.71330
163	41.94358	23.84710	0.37993	0.17316	0.69166
120	41.51056	24.48108	0.42377	0.35648	0.68666
165	41.57123	23.80742	0.42735	0.21363	0.68421
132	41.70381	23.91215	0.37697	0.23726	0.69216
17	41.01834	25.21577	0.38823	0.18321	0.69510
114	41.73061	24.62365	0.29061	0.30171	0.70690
140	41.83357	23.82537	0.39858	0.20311	0.68856

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROBABILITY
BETWEEN PEOPLE	2037.77264	708	2.87821		
WITHIN PEOPLE	5676.90000	6301	0.89966		
BETWEEN MEASURES	446.83625	9	49.64847	60.48876	0.00000
RESIDUAL	5230.06375	6372	0.82079		
NONADDITIVITY	22.73173	1	22.73173	27.81153	0.00000
BALANCE	5208.33202	6371	0.81735		
TOTAL	7714.67264	7089	1.08826		
GRAND MEAN =	4.62891				

TUKEY ESTIMATE OF POWER TO WHICH OBSERVATIONS MUST BE RAISED TO ACHIEVE ADDITIVITY = 2.9474505

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS 10 ITEMS
 ALPHA = 0.71483 STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = 0.72376

*** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS *** 05/31/86
 FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/84) TRY
 ***** RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR SCALE (6) *****

OF CASES = 709.0

STATISTICS FOR SCALE	MEAN	VARIANCE	STD DEV	# VARIABLES
	19.26234	23.29549	4.82654	6

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED TOTAL CORRELATION	SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
161	15.51622	19.25856	0.28240	0.19310	0.51428
156	16.50635	13.93675	0.33577	0.29501	0.49842
168	16.82370	15.37989	0.43104	0.31301	0.43208
121	15.82793	18.74719	0.28844	0.20227	0.51002
125	15.80536	18.25585	0.26507	0.09197	0.51851
154	15.83216	20.19637	0.19490	0.05727	0.54420

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROBABILITY
BETWEEN PEOPLE	2748.86742	708	3.88258		
WITHIN PEOPLE	7051.83333	3545	1.98923		
BETWEEN MEASURES	885.09850	5	177.01970	101.61775	0.00000
RESIDUAL	6166.73484	3540	1.74202		
NONADDITIVITY	331.60535	1	331.60535	201.11830	-0.00000
BALANCE	5835.12949	3539	1.64881		
TOTAL	9800.70075	4253	2.30442		
GRAND MEAN =	3.21039				3.4445258

TUKEY ESTIMATE OF POWER TO WHICH OBSERVATIONS MUST BE RAISED TO ACHIEVE ADDITIVITY =

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS 6 ITEMS
 ALPHA = 0.55133 STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = 0.55886

APPENDIX D
FACTOR ANALYSIS

05/31/86

*** FACTOR ANALYSIS OF LISTENING DATA ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 05/31/86) TRY

VARIABLE	MEAN	STANDARD DEV	CASES
11	3.5805	1.3912	802
12	4.4339	1.1144	802
13	4.7257	1.0420	802
14	4.5960	1.1862	802
15	4.1671	1.3285	802
16	4.7966	0.9519	802
17	3.2469	0.8219	802
18	4.5374	1.0129	802
19	3.5137	1.5009	802
20	3.3978	1.2230	802
21	4.5923	0.9439	802
22	3.1322	1.1251	802
23	4.5661	0.8762	802
24	4.5549	1.0810	802
25	3.5673	1.2773	802
26	4.2818	0.9807	802
27	3.8596	1.1362	802
28	3.6172	1.3171	802
29	4.0037	1.1987	802
30	4.7618	0.8991	802
31	3.4219	1.2361	802
32	2.7706	1.1792	802
33	4.8758	0.9739	802
34	3.7007	1.2543	802
35	3.4875	1.3894	802
36	4.1421	1.3048	802
37	2.6371	0.9822	802
38	3.5549	1.1362	802
39	3.8392	1.0542	802
40	2.8010	1.0086	802
41	3.5823	1.1904	802
42	4.5798	1.0596	802
43	3.6508	1.1645	802
44	3.6110	1.2831	802
45	3.8653	1.2010	802
46	3.6110	1.2171	802
47	3.7406	1.2562	802
48	4.0187	1.2575	802
49	3.8287	1.1966	802
50	4.4339	1.0616	802
51	4.7494	0.9809	802
52	4.5062	0.9338	802
53	4.2955	1.0714	802
54	3.7332	1.3734	802
55	3.9638	1.0611	802
56	4.0736	1.0639	802
57	3.2656	1.1386	802
58	3.0623	1.2111	802

05/31/84

... FACTOR ANALYSIS OF LISTENING DATA ...

149	3.7618	1.0842	802
150	3.1247	1.1969	802
151	4.6559	0.9747	802
152	3.5661	1.1681	802
153	3.7880	1.2621	802
154	3.4202	1.1046	802
155	3.8504	1.1878	802
156	2.6920	2.0300	802
157	3.7980	1.0852	802
158	4.1322	1.1622	802
159	4.4800	1.1783	802
160	3.5960	1.2009	802
161	3.7170	1.1871	802
162	4.3529	1.2862	802
163	4.3204	1.0686	802
164	3.6160	1.4687	802
165	4.6933	1.0158	802
166	3.7793	1.3684	802
167	3.8703	1.3760	802
168	2.3017	1.6592	802

12/07/83

*** FACTOR ANALYSIS OF LISTENING DATA ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 12/07/83) TRY

FACTOR SCORE COEFFICIENTS

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6
11	0.12303	-0.05027	0.01431	0.05405	-0.06142	-0.08187
12	-0.03846	0.06019	0.03516	-0.05337	0.01322	0.02295
13	-0.04915	0.09105	-0.01247	0.06331	-0.00831	-0.01964
14	-0.02767	0.03515	0.00131	0.01329	0.01902	-0.09715
15	0.04139	-0.03692	0.00114	-0.02532	0.06192	-0.03308
16	-0.01757	0.09412	0.00263	-0.03722	-0.09136	-0.03236
17	-0.00661	0.02124	0.00924	0.02777	0.03932	-0.07770
18	-0.01520	0.14284	0.00275	-0.09163	-0.01562	0.03282
19	0.02565	-0.04449	0.15371	0.01403	0.02856	-0.02164
20	0.11634	0.02438	-0.00526	0.01114	-0.09667	0.00957
21	-0.00526	0.11666	-0.01329	-0.00356	-0.01057	0.01138
22	0.03127	-0.19509	-0.01968	0.07390	0.06003	-0.03005
23	0.01135	0.12232	-0.01166	-0.03451	-0.02103	-0.00236
24	-0.06224	0.00207	-0.00227	0.09747	0.10575	0.05639
25	-0.01862	-0.02553	-0.00384	0.15131	-0.00771	0.00398
26	0.00229	0.06358	-0.01479	0.05569	-0.01693	0.00292
27	0.00269	0.03015	0.01302	0.07293	-0.12039	0.01823
28	0.00222	0.02431	-0.00459	0.07728	-0.04790	-0.01703
29	-0.00704	0.04851	0.00945	0.01307	-0.03078	-0.01584
30	-0.10409	0.03544	-0.01091	0.15485	0.13966	0.09361
31	-0.02379	0.03512	-0.02352	0.06029	-0.02576	0.14013
32	0.04008	-0.04441	0.13453	-0.03292	-0.06399	-0.00805
33	-0.00140	0.10914	-0.01329	0.02552	0.00777	-0.06604
34	0.04139	0.02742	0.01159	0.01380	-0.01592	-0.07270
35	-0.00733	-0.00753	-0.01126	0.07304	0.01015	0.10184
36	-0.02194	-0.00822	0.00299	0.09004	0.02367	-0.03817
37	0.05659	-0.04026	0.00729	-0.01265	0.02114	0.06473
38	0.05672	-0.03508	0.00734	0.03359	0.02372	-0.00321
39	0.05870	-0.01366	-0.01835	-0.02901	0.03583	-0.00630
40	0.07433	-0.03232	-0.00436	0.00331	-0.00453	0.00936
41	0.00572	-0.04527	-0.00499	-0.12516	0.11763	0.00230
42	0.04009	-0.02170	-0.00361	0.00949	0.12355	-0.10754
43	0.02359	-0.03784	-0.00341	0.10823	-0.02992	-0.01678
44	-0.03574	0.02416	0.07906	0.05392	-0.05024	-0.02109
45	0.09747	-0.00945	-0.00461	-0.06641	0.03744	-0.08542
46	-0.02172	0.00962	-0.00072	0.06084	0.02058	0.07242
47	-0.00397	0.00723	0.00121	-0.10569	0.03076	-0.01591
48	-0.01443	0.07982	0.00739	-0.13856	0.00351	0.03215
49	-0.10221	0.00519	0.00754	0.15454	-0.02450	-0.04014
50	0.01723	0.02517	-0.00449	0.0012	0.06008	-0.05241
51	-0.02517	0.07591	-0.00550	0.03313	0.01159	-0.05213
52	0.00409	0.15089	-0.01567	0.01474	-0.03066	-0.04705

12/07/83

*** FACTOR ANALYSIS OF LISTENING DATA ***

FILE FIRST (CREATION DATE = 12/07/83) TRY

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6
143	0.10204	0.11440	-0.00756	-0.07038	-0.08829	-0.03958
144	-0.02407	0.03099	0.23017	0.04202	-0.06275	-0.05873
145	-0.00199	0.07357	-0.02125	0.06317	-0.05753	0.00591
146	0.01379	-0.01444	0.00373	0.07668	0.04846	-0.12277
147	0.03976	-0.04575	-0.02772	-0.00719	0.06945	0.01894
148	0.15118	-0.04275	0.00322	-0.00740	-0.03978	-0.01028
149	0.06330	0.02934	-0.00173	-0.02539	0.00242	0.04523
150	-0.02719	0.01466	0.00453	-0.02923	-0.04729	-0.01344
151	0.02156	-0.01284	-0.00356	0.03402	0.16355	-0.05950
152	0.06094	0.01027	0.00105	-0.00602	-0.00814	0.07225
153	0.01690	0.03209	0.17602	-0.04845	-0.03469	0.01332
154	0.11979	-0.01332	0.00108	-0.05957	-0.01942	0.15982
155	0.08193	0.00284	-0.00361	-0.01520	0.00089	0.09317
156	0.01377	-0.03274	0.00463	-0.04093	0.01100	0.18173
157	0.02140	0.04210	-0.00961	0.01911	-0.01527	0.07444
158	0.10934	-0.00355	-0.00392	-0.05229	0.04428	0.00577
159	-0.01691	-0.03808	-0.00329	0.04099	0.17396	0.06372
160	0.03124	-0.03124	0.00323	-0.01577	-0.00850	0.04148
161	-0.02122	0.00403	-0.01139	0.01443	0.08206	0.19592
162	0.01947	-0.03426	-0.00353	-0.07300	0.15945	-0.01185
163	-0.00837	0.02482	-0.00283	-0.02557	0.13591	-0.02975
164	0.00089	-0.07160	0.20977	-0.06797	0.12158	0.02197
165	0.00058	0.07551	0.00451	-0.06039	0.11131	-0.02246
166	-0.03937	0.02696	0.18774	-0.01890	0.03849	0.07374
167	0.01745	-0.02017	0.00136	0.04698	0.05473	0.04331
168	0.01060	-0.01475	0.00528	-0.01834	-0.01934	0.17403

END

FILMED

9-84

DTIC